

LONGMANS' HISTORICAL SERIES FOR SCHOOLS

Book II

A HISTORY OF
GREAT BRITAIN

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES
TO THE DEATH OF EDWARD VII.

With 147 Illustrations and 35 Maps and Plans.

BY T. F. TOUT, M.A.

BISHOP FRASER PROFESSOR OF MEDIEVAL AND ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY
IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER
FELLOW OF THE BRITISH ACADEMY

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P R E F A C E

THIS new Historical Series for Schools consists of three books, based upon the 'concentric system,' which are worked out on much the same lines as are the corresponding three volumes of Longmans' Geographical Series.

The first book, which was published in 1903, aims at exciting a general interest in British History in the minds of boys and girls in the junior forms at schools.

This second book, first published in 1902, aims at traversing the same ground with greater thoroughness, a more specific attempt at consecutive narrative, and with more abundant detail. It aspires to tell the story of our country with sufficient particularity to suit the needs of middle forms in schools.

The illustrations and maps have been carefully chosen with the view of directly illustrating the facts detailed in the narrative. A full analysis of the contents is given, which may serve as a rough summary, and the index has been compiled on as comprehensive a basis as possible.

The third book, published in 1906, goes further into detail, though following on most essential points the methods adopted in the present volume. It is framed with regard to the practical wants of the higher forms of schools, and it is hoped that it contains such

information as is usually required from candidates for the better class of school-leaving examinations.

The writer is conscious that some apology is needed for adding to the number of text-books on English History. He is not, however, aware of any series written on the present plan, and has been encouraged to carry out his task by the advice and assistance of many ladies and gentlemen actively engaged in school work. He would like particularly to mention his debt to Mr. J. W. Allen, alike in framing the general scheme of the series, in determining the standards to be aimed at, and in the choice and preparation of illustrations and maps.

The present edition has been carefully revised and corrected. A new chapter has been added dealing with the reign of Edward VII.

THE UNIVERSITY, MANCHESTER,
Christmas, 1911.

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BOOK I

BRITAIN BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST Up to 1066

CHAPTER I

Britain before the English Conquest up to 449

Principal Persons :

Julius Caesar ; the Emperor Claudius ; St. Patrick.

Principal Dates :

55-54 B.C. Invasions of Britain by Julius Caesar.

43 A.D. Claudius begins the Roman Conquest of Britain.

410 A.D. The Romans withdraw from Britain.

410-449 A.D. The Britons independent.

The chief early races of Britain were :

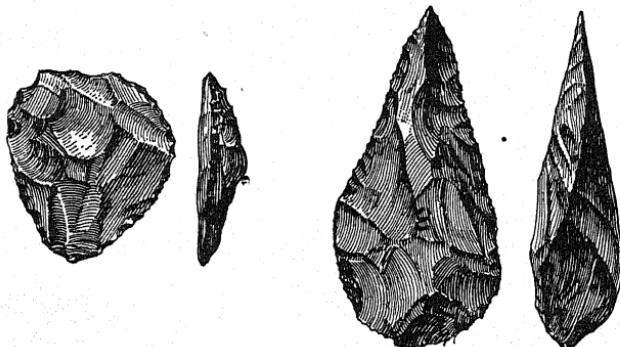
(1) The Cave Men.

(2) The Iberians.

(3) The Celts.

1. Many thousand years ago the islands of Britain and Ireland were very different from what they are now. It was hotter in summer and colder in winter. Wild beasts, such as lions and bears, roamed about the desolate hills and swampy valleys seeking for their prey. Against them fought, as best they could, a few savage men, little better than dwarfs. They were so ignorant that they could not plough the fields. They did not know how to use metals, and their only tools and weapons were made of flints, rudely cut and sharpened. For this reason

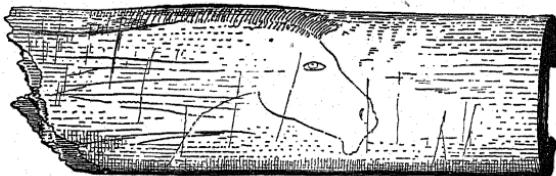
the time at which they lived was called the *palaeolithic* or old stone age. These primitive men sought out dwellings for themselves in caves, where their remains



Palaeolithic Flint Scraper from Icklingham, Suffolk. (Evans.)

Palaeolithic Flint Implement from Horne, Suffolk.

are still found. The cleverest things they made were pictures of animals scratched upon flat pieces of bone. We do not know how these men came to our land, how long they lived there, or what tongue they spoke. It is very unlikely that any of us are descended from



Engraved Bone from Creswell Crags, Derbyshire.
(Now in the British Museum.)

them. Yet we should remember these *cave men* because they were the first human beings who ever dwelt in our land.

2. Ages passed away and the *cave men* disappeared. Their place was taken by another race of men,

who are sometimes called *Iberians*; because they are thought to be the same as the old inhabitants of Spain, which was once called Iberia. These were short, dark-skinned, black-haired men, whose skulls were long and narrow. Many of the short, dark men now living among us are very like what these Iberians must have been, and probably

The
Iberians.

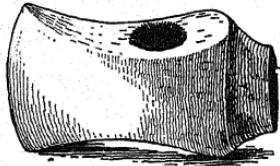


View of Stonehenge. (From a Photograph.)

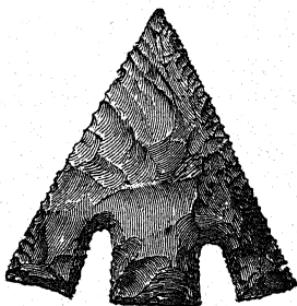
Iberian blood still runs in their veins. It is very likely that the great circles of huge stones, like *Stonehenge* in Salisbury Plain, which are found still remaining, are the work of this people. The Iberians were much less savage than the race that had gone before them. Though still ignorant of metals, their stone tools were beautifully neat and useful. The time when they flourished is called the *neolithic* or the new stone age. They ground corn, wove wool into cloth, and made vessels of coarse pottery.

•3. The next people that came to Britain were called the *Celts*. They were a tall, fair-skinned, light-haired race, with round skulls, and they spoke lan-

The Celts. guages which are still the mother-tongues of many of us. They overcame the little dark Iberians, and forced them to learn their language and customs. Many of us are descended from these Celts, or the race formed by the mixing together of the Celts with the Iberians. The Irish, the Manx, the Scottish Highlanders, and the Welsh are either pure Celts or come



Neolithic Axe from Winterbourn Steepleton, Dorset. (Evans.)



Neolithic Flint Arrow-head from Rudstone, Yorks. (Evans.)

from this mixed stock. Most of the Welsh and some of the Irish and Highland Scots still speak Celtic languages. Even in the rest of Britain many people are mainly of these races. The Celts were not only stronger but more civilised than the earlier inhabitants of Britain. They brought in the use of metals, and made their tools and arms at first of bronze and afterwards also of iron. They wore clothes, and were fond of gold and silver bracelets and ornaments. The use of pottery was well understood by them. Their wealth was chiefly in great flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. They were famous horsemen, and the chiefs rode to battle in war-chariots, with which they fiercely charged the enemy. They were brave, polite, and enterprising, but fickle,

suspicious, and not very persevering. Living for the most part in the country in scattered houses, when the enemy invaded their land they took refuge in great camps or *duns*, perched on high hill-tops, and defended by thick walls of earth and deep ditches. They were very religious, and worshipped many gods. They showed great respect for their priests, who were called *Druuids*. They were fond of poetry and songs, in which they told of the deeds of famous warriors. They were divided into tribes, each of



Early British Pottery

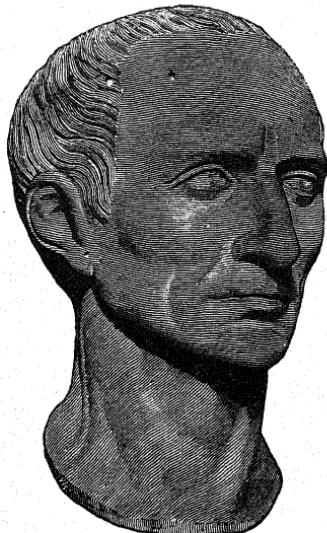
which had its separate chieftain. These tribes were constantly fighting with one another. The Celts dwelling in the south were called the *Britons*, and from them our island got its name of *Britain*.

4. Two thousand years ago the most powerful people in the world were the *Romans*. They were originally the inhabitants of the city of Rome in Italy, but they had first conquered all Italy, and then made themselves masters of all the civilised world. They were much wiser, stronger, and richer than the *Britons*, and they looked upon the inhabitants of this land as little better than savages dwelling in the remotest ends of the earth.

The
Romans.

5. The most famous general and statesman that the Romans had ever had was *Caius Julius Cæsar*. He

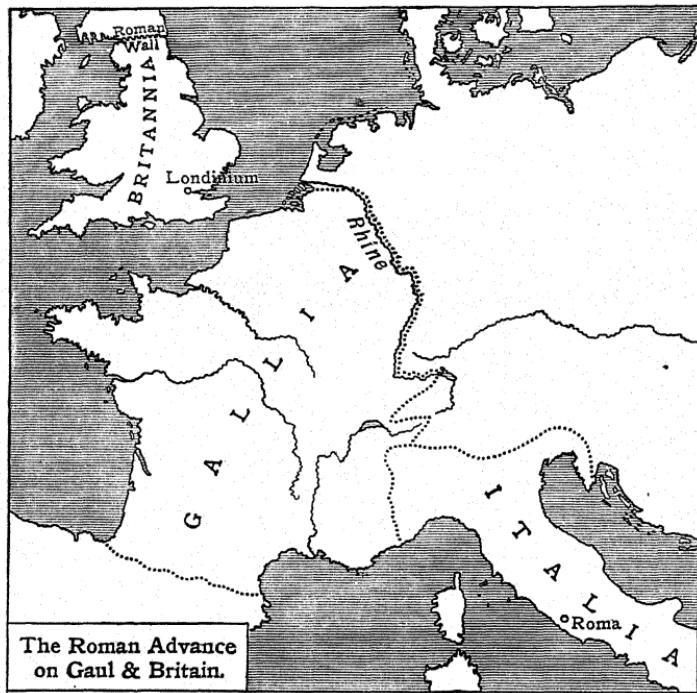
Julius Caesar and the Roman Empire. brought about a great change in the government of his country. Before his time Rome was a republic, ruled by the nobles. But Cæsar made himself lord over all the Romans, governing them as a general commands his soldiers. He thus became the founder of the Roman Empire.



Caius Julius Cæsar.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

Cæsar's Invasions of Britain. 6. Cæsar was also a mighty conqueror, who added many new districts to the Roman dominions. The most famous of Cæsar's conquests was that of *Gaul*, the country now called France. But the people of that land, the Gauls, were Celts, like the Britons, and when they were hard pressed by Cæsar, their kinsfolk, the Britons, went to their help. To punish the Britons for this Cæsar led two expeditions into Britain. The first of these took place fifty-five years before the birth of Christ.

But Cæsar did not bring enough soldiers with him, and soon found it wise to go back to Gaul. Next year he came again with a larger army, and did not leave until he had defeated the Britons and forced them to pay tribute to Rome. Besides being a statesman and warrior, Cæsar was also a famous



writer. He wrote an account of what he saw and did in Britain which has come down to us, and from which we get our earliest full description of the land and the people. Before this time we can only guess what happened from digging up the tombs and other remains of the peoples dwelling in our islands. From Cæsar's invasions onwards we have some sort of written story of British history.

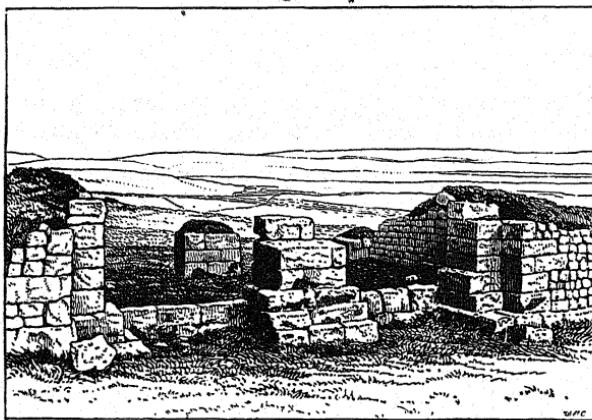
7. For nearly a hundred years after Cæsar's invasions the Britons were left to themselves. It was a famous time in the world's history, for during those years the great Roman Empire which Cæsar had founded became firmly established, so that the world was now ruled by Roman emperors. Moreover, in those same years, Jesus Christ lived and was crucified and the Christian religion began, though as yet very few people believed in it or had even heard of it. During



Roman Soldiers crossing a River on a Bridge of Boats.

This period the Romans forgot all about the Britons, and the Britons once more became bold enough to help the Gauls against the Romans. Accordingly the Romans thought it best to turn Britain into a Roman province, ruled by a Roman governor. Forty-three years after the birth of our Lord, the Roman emperor *Claudius* sent an army to Britain and ordered it to conquer the land. But the Britons fought very bravely, and in the end the Romans were satisfied with winning for themselves the southern part of the island. They built a rampart of earth between the Firths of Forth and Clyde which marked

the northern limit of their power. Beyond it, among the high hills of what we now call the Scottish Highlands, the Celts still remained free. These northern Celts were now called the *Caledonians*, and their land Caledonia. Later they were called *Picts*, which some have thought to mean the painted people, because, unlike their southern neighbours, they wore few clothes, but painted their bodies with bright colours. As time went on the Romans gave up any



A Portion of the Roman Wall.

(Showing the West Gateway of Borcovicus, a Roman Station, now Housesteads in South-west Northumberland.)

attempt to hold the northern part of their conquest. They fell back upon an earlier boundary wall running from the Solway, near Carlisle, to the mouth of the Tyne, below Newcastle. This wall was very solidly built of stone, and you can still see in the wild moorlands of Northumberland long stretches of this great monument of Roman skill and power.

8. Roman rule in southern Britain lasted for more than three hundred years. It brought much good to the land but also some little evil. The Romans

gave the Britons such sound peace and strong rule as they had never enjoyed before. The Romans covered

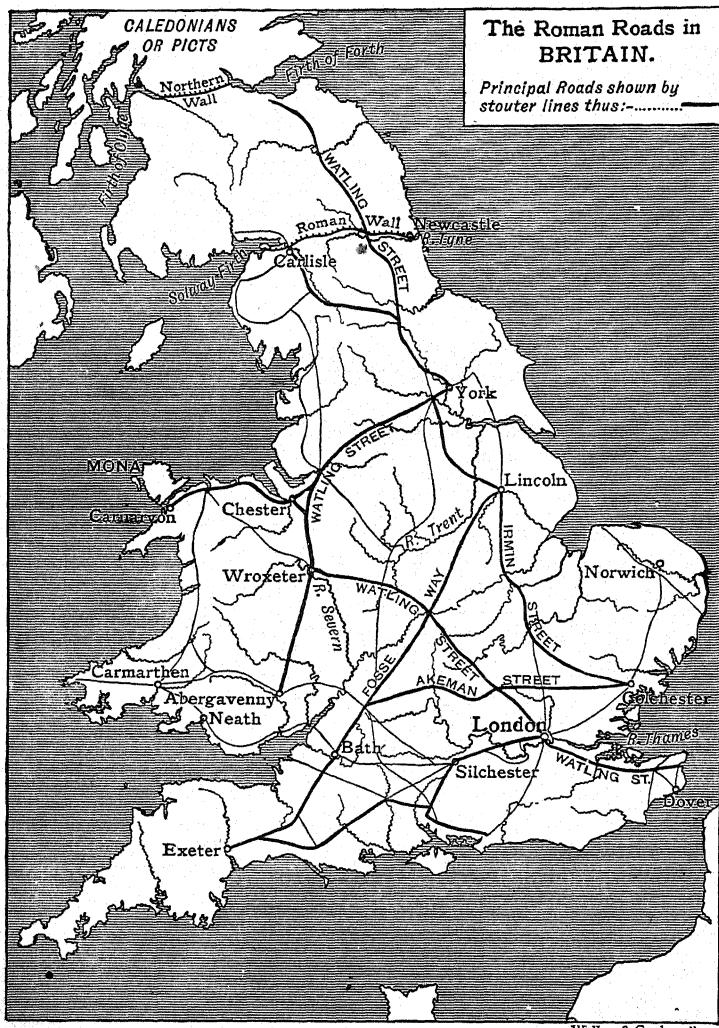
Roman rule in South Britain. Britain with fair cities and pleasant country-houses. They fenced around their fortresses with strong walls of brick and stone,

and planned hard, smooth roads to connect together the different parts of the country. So well were these roads made that they still remained the chief means of communication, hundreds of years after the Romans had left our land. The Romans encouraged trade, opened out mines and fisheries, planted fruit-trees and vines, drained the marshes and cut down the dense forests. They grew so much corn that Britain was called the granary of Europe. They persuaded the British chiefs to learn the Roman or *Latin* tongue and the polished ways of Roman life.

9. Towards the end of their rule in Britain, the Romans had nearly all become Christians. They brought the new faith into Britain, and before long there was a British Church, with its own bishops and priests, which soon put an end to the worship of the many gods in which the Britons had once believed.

Roman Britain and Ireland become Christian. From this British Church the Welsh Church of to-day has sprung. From its missionaries sent to proclaim the glad tidings outside the Roman province, the Irish Church traces its origin. The most famous of the teachers who brought over the Irish to the new religion was the Briton *Patrick*, whom Irishmen still revere as their patron saint. Thus the Irish, though never conquered by the Romans, received from Roman Britain their first instruction in the faith of Christ.

10. The Romans never settled in large numbers in Britain, and the Britons went on talking their old-tongue and following their ancient customs. But as years rolled by the Britons forgot the old habit of fighting, and their old way of ruling the land. This

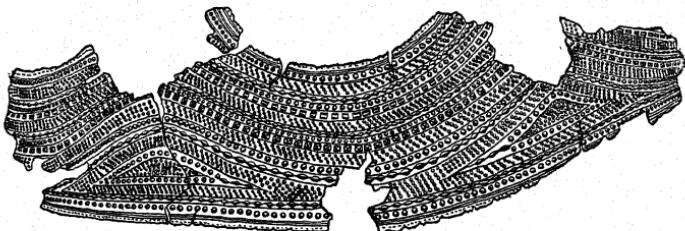


proved a great trouble to them when the Romans at last found that they could govern the Britons no longer.

The end of Roman power in Britain. But fierce wandering tribes were plundering and devastating the very heart of the Roman Empire, and the Romans wanted all their soldiers to save Italy itself from attack.

Accordingly, in 410, they entirely withdrew their troops from Britain, telling the Britons that henceforth they must defend themselves as best they might.

11. Thus the Britons were once more free; but they did not long enjoy their liberty. They were attacked on every side by brave and savage enemies. From the west came the Celts, living in Ireland; but in those days the Irish were generally called the *Scots*. From the north came the *Caledonians* or *Picts*, who plundered Britain from end to end. More terrible still



British Gold Ornament.
(From the Original in the British Museum.)

were the swarms of fierce pirates who came from northern Germany. The Britons fought bravely against all these invaders; but they did not act together, and had few good leaders. Bit by bit they were forced to give way. Before long both the foes from the west and from the east began to establish new homes for themselves in Britain. The Scots settled in the north-west, and the Germans in the

south-east. From the arrival of these invaders begins a new period of our history.

12. Up to this point we have had to do only with the history of Britain. But different parts of the island of Britain now begin to get separate names of their own. These names are now so familiar to us that it is hard to remember sometimes that there was a period when they did not exist. It was now that the Scots from Ireland gave to parts of northern Britain the new name of *Scotland*, or land of the *Scots*. And the Germans, who settled in the south, were called the *English*, and from them southern Britain began to be called *England*, or the land of the ^{The} English. Moreover, the English called the ^{beginnings} of England, Britons the *Welsh*, and the land they lived in ^{Scotland,} ^{and Wales.} *Wales*. Nowadays we all know that Britain is divided into England, Scotland, and Wales. This division first begins when, side by side with the ancient Britons or Welsh, the Scots and English first made their homes in our land. But the England, Scotland, and Wales of those days were quite different in size and boundaries from those of later times. It took a very long time before the three peoples, the English, the Scots, and the Welsh, settled down side by side into something like their present homes.

CHAPTER II

How the English came to Britain, and how they became Christians, 449-668

Principal Persons :

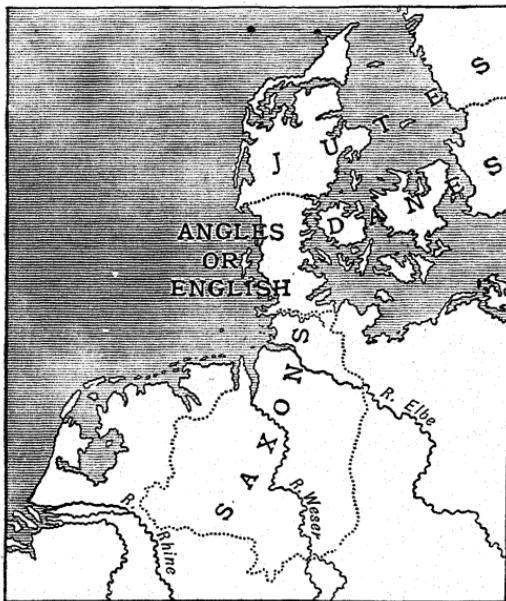
Hengist and Horsa; Kenneth MacAlpine, King of Scots; Pope Gregory the Great; Ethelbert, King of Kent; St. Augustine, Archbishop of Canterbury; Edwin, King of Northumbria; Paulinus, Archbishop of York; Penda, King of Mercia; Oswald, King of Northumbria; Theodore of Tarsus, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Principal Dates :

449. Landing of Hengist and Horsa.
597. Landing of St. Augustine.
627. Conversion of Edwin.
655. Penda slain in battle.
668. Theodore of Tarsus made Archbishop of Canterbury.

1. Before they came to Britain the English had lived in North Germany, along the coast of the North Sea, and on the banks of the river Elbe. They ^{Who were} ~~the English?~~ were divided into three main tribes, called the *Jutes*, the *Saxons*, and the *Angles*. All of these took part in the conquest of Britain. At first there was no common name for all three groups of peoples. But gradually they began to find it necessary to call each other by a single name, and they took the name of *English*. This is really only another form of the word *Angle*, but it was now used in this wider sense, since the *Angles* or *English* took the most important part in the conquest of Britain. But the Welsh or Britons more usually called their enemies by the common name of *Saxons*. Sometimes, too, they

are styled the *Anglo-Saxons*, which means the race formed by the union of the Angles and Saxons. But whether we call them English, Saxons, or Anglo-Saxons, we must never forget that they are the fore-fathers of most of us modern Englishmen, though not perhaps of all Englishmen, since as time went on many men of British and Scottish blood gave up speaking



Walker & Cockerell sc.

The old Homes of the English.

their old Celtic tongue, and talked and lived like Englishmen. Thus it is nowadays that all people in southern Britain, except the Welsh, talk the English language, whether they are sprung from the British or the old English. For the tongue which the new-comers brought into the land was called English from the first. It is from this tongue that the English which we speak to-day has grown, though our language is very different

from the one which our old English forefathers used to speak.

2. The first English to settle in Britain were the Jutes, whose chieftains, *Hengist* and *Horsa*, set up in 449 the kingdom of Kent, which is much the same as the modern county of *Kent*.
The English Conquest of South Britain. The little Jutish kingdom was soon surrounded by Saxon settlements, whose names live on in the modern counties of south-eastern England. Thus *Essex* was once the kingdom of the East Saxons, *Middlesex* that of the Middle Saxons, and *Sussex* that of the South Saxons. Much more important, however, than these was the great Saxon kingdom of the West Saxons, or *Wessex*, which, beginning perhaps in Hampshire, gradually spread over all southern England.

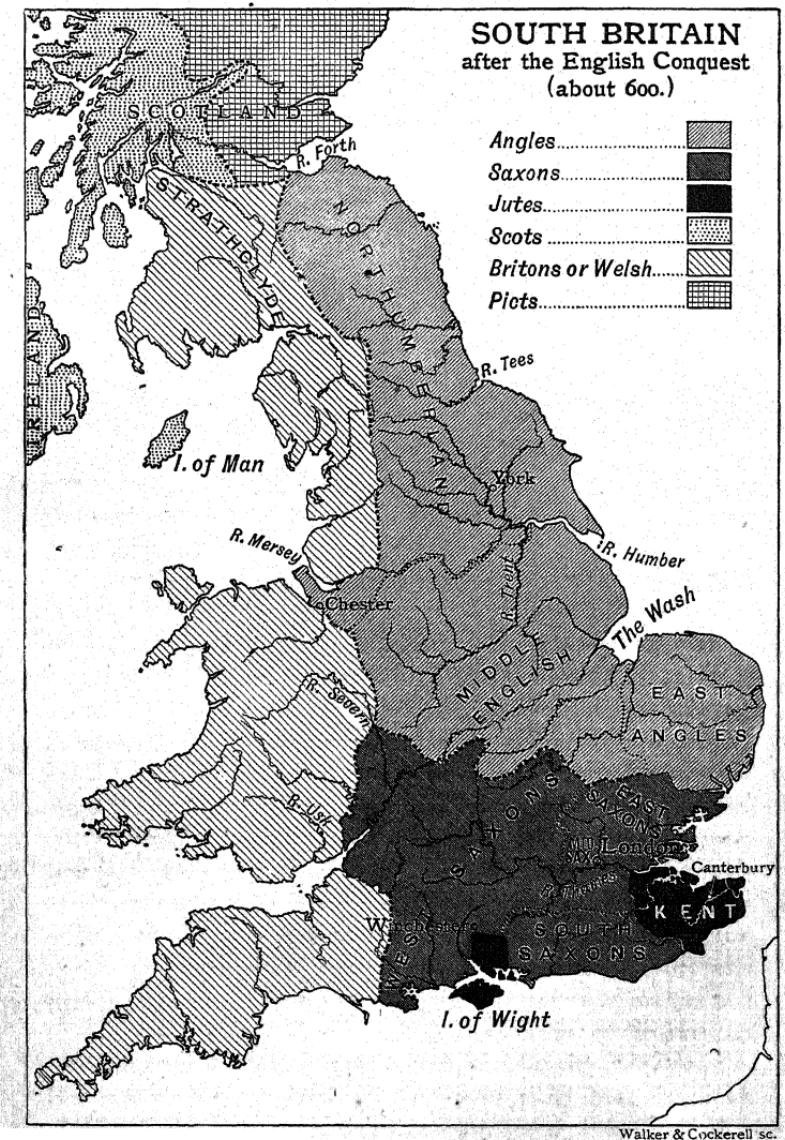
3. To the north of the Saxon settlements came the Angles, or English in the narrower sense, who also set up many little states. Three of these Anglian states lasted longer and were more important than the others. One of these was *East Anglia*, the land of the East Angles or East English, including Norfolk (the North folk) and Suffolk (the South folk). In the lands between the Trent and the Thames, the great kingdom of *Mercia*, inhabited by the Mercians, stretched from the borders of East Anglia to the river Severn. Mercia means the *March* or the boundary district between the English and Welsh, but in those days this boundary was formed by the hills that separate the upper Trent from the Severn. To its north lay the kingdom of *Northumbria*, which took in all the lands between the Firth of Forth and the Humber.

4. In the western parts of South Britain the Welsh still held their own. There were three groups of Welsh states. In the north was *Cumberland*, or the land of the *Strathclyde Welsh*. This ran from the

strath or valley of the river Clyde southwards to the river Mersey, and was cut off from Northumbria by the wild moorlands of the Pennine chain. South of the Mersey, Northumbria just reached to the Irish Sea, cutting off the Welsh of ^{The Welsh kingdoms.} Cumberland from the Welsh of the district west of the Severn, parts of which are still called *Wales*. But the *Wales* of those days went much farther east than it does now. Moreover, south of the Bristol Channel lived the *West Welsh* in Devon and Cornwall, who in their turn were cut off from the Welsh of Wales by the West Saxons conquering Somerset and the lands on the lower Severn. Thus the Welsh were split up by the English advance into three different districts separated from each other. In this way also was the old Roman province of Britain divided between the Welsh, who dwelt in the western portion, and the English, who, having conquered the east, were constantly pressing their enemies farther back in the west. Only their wild hills and barren moors enabled the Welsh to hold their own..

5. Beyond the Forth and the Clyde changes were also taking place. The Scots had, as we have seen, settled in the western islands and Highlands. They gradually encroached upon their Pictish ^{The Picts and the Scots.} neighbours, and, about four hundred years after this, a King of Scots became King of the Picts as well. The name of this king was *Kenneth Mac-Alpine*, and he died in 860. After this Scotland and Pictland remained united under a single king. From the days of Kenneth the lands north of Forth and Clyde bore the name of Scotland, and the Picts disappear from history.

6. It took nearly one hundred and fifty years for the English to complete their conquest of south-eastern Britain. But they did their work very thoroughly. If any Britons remained in the English lands they



remained as slaves, or were gradually forced to speak English and follow the English fashions. It was only in the west, where the English came later, that very many of the Britons lived on after the English Conquest. And in this long struggle most of the cities and great works left behind by the Romans were destroyed. For the English, like the Britons before the coming of the Romans, had no love for dwelling in towns, and little care for the arts of peace. They were, when not fighting, a pastoral and farming people, dwelling in scattered homesteads over the countryside. They conquered the Britons, not because they were braver, but because they were fiercer, stronger, and more persevering than their enemies. They had not been softened, like the Britons, by Roman civilisation.

7. Each little English kingdom cared only for itself, and before long there were as many wars between the various English states as there were between English and Welsh. But some good resulted from those struggles, since the stronger kings conquered the weaker, and so gradually cut down the number of little states into which the land had been split up. Sometimes one kingdom conquered another outright. More often, however, it was content with forcing the weaker state to bow down before it and acknowledge its supremacy. Thus the stronger kings became *overlords* over their weaker neighbours. Among the first kings who exercised such authority was *Ethelbert*, King of Kent, who reigned in that kingdom about a hundred and fifty years after the coming of Hengist and Horsa. We must remember the name of King Ethelbert, since it was during his rule that the first attempts were made to win over the fierce English to the Christian faith.

The first English Overlords.

8. The English who came to Britain were heathens, worshipping the old gods of the Germans, such as

Woden and Thor. The Welsh still remained Christians from Roman times, but as they were driven westward into the hills, the English stamped out nearly all traces of the Christian faith in the Great. Even after one hundred and fifty years of struggle, the Welsh and English hated each other so bitterly and were fighting so constantly that there was little chance of the English learning of the Christian faith from their enemies' lips. But it happened that a very good and able man held the office of Bishop of Rome in the days when Ethelbert was King of Kent. Now the Bishop of Rome was looked upon as the first and greatest of all the bishops and as the head of the Catholic Church. He was generally called the *Pope*, that is, the father. This good Pope's name was *Gregory*, and he was afterwards called Gregory the Great. Long before he had become Pope, he had been struck with the bright, fair faces of some English slave children standing for sale in the market at Rome. He asked to what nation they belonged, and was told that they were *Angles*. 'Say rather,' he replied, 'that they have the faces of *Angels*.' When further told that they were heathens and that their king was called *Ælla*, he went on with his pious puns, saying that *Alleluia* must soon be sung in *Ælla's* land. From that time he became eager that the land of Britain, which had once been inhabited by a Christian people, should again be brought back to the faith of Christ.

9. After he became Pope, Gregory carried out his wish. He sent his friend, the monk *Augustine*, and a band of monks to preach the gospel to the English heathens. In 597 Augustine and his followers landed in Kent, and were well received by King Ethelbert. Before long Ethelbert and most of his people were baptized into the Christian faith. Augustine was made *Archbishop of the English Church*, and taking

up his residence at Canterbury, the royal city of the Kentish kings, he became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. This see is still the chief bishopric of England, and owes its position to the fact that the first English king to turn Christian was the King of Kent.

10. Augustine and his monks proved zealous missionaries, and soon won not only Kent but the neighbouring kingdom of Essex and Middlesex to the Christian faith. Here Augustine set up one of his followers as the first Bishop of London. However, here his success ended. He failed to win over all the English to the new doctrine, and it cost long and severe struggles before Christianity became the religion of the whole land. The next great step forwards was in 627, when *Edwin*, King of the Northumbrians, who had married Ethelbert's daughter, went over to his wife's faith, and made *Paulinus*, who had gone from Kent to the north as her chaplain, the first Archbishop of York, the capital of Northumbria. This was the more important since Edwin was now the strongest of all the English kings, having more than succeeded to the power of Ethelbert.

11. Many of the English clave stoutly to their old gods. They despised the weakness and humility which the Christians professed, and had rather worship the grim old deities that delighted in battle, slaughter, and revenge. A leader for the lovers of old ways arose in *Penda*, King of the Mercians, a mighty warrior who had conquered all the Midlands, and was jealous of the power of Edwin, as well as of the new faith. The Welsh were so afraid of Edwin, that, Christians as they were, they did not hesitate to join with the heathen Penda in waging war against the Northumbrian king. At last the Mercians and Welsh slew Edwin in battle, and Paulinus was driven back to Kent. For the

The landing of St. Augustine.

The Conversion of Edwin.

The struggle between Christianity and the old religion.

moment it looked as if Christianity were likely to be blotted out. But before long the Northumbrians found another Christian king in *Oswald*, who had learned the faith in the great monastery of *Iona*, built by Irish monks in the little island of that name off the western coast of Scotland. Though Penda fought hard against Oswald and finally slew him, he could never succeed in rooting out the Christian faith. Before the end of his reign Penda was forced to confess himself beaten and allow the missionaries to preach the gospel, even in his own land of Mercia. In 655 Penda was slain by the Northumbrians in battle, and thereupon Mercia itself became Christian.

12. After a struggle of over fifty years the wish of Pope Gregory had been granted. But it still took

The work of Theodore of Tarsus. some time before the Christian religion was firmly established in the land. Many of

the English learned the faith not from Roman missionaries like Augustine, but from Irish or Scottish monks, whose ways of worshipping were not exactly the same as those of the Roman Church. A new Archbishop of Canterbury was sent in 668 from Rome to bring order into the Church of the English. This was a Greek named *Theodore of Tarsus*, who deserves to be remembered as the first really great ruler of the English Church. Through Theodore's care the Church was reformed and brought into obedience and unity under the see of Canterbury. The special customs of the Scots were gradually given up, and all the dwellers in Britain were at last bound together by the fact of their common Christian faith.

13. It was a long time before the change of creed really changed the savage old ways of the English. In The monks and their work. the long run, however, Christianity made them much more gentle and civilised. For example, in their later wars with the Welsh, they do not seem any longer to have butchered their

enemies so freely as they did before. And the fierce warrior was no longer the only sort of Englishman. Wherever the Christian faith spread, there were found men and women who grew weary of the violence and bloodshed they saw everywhere around them. They had not much hope of making the world as a whole any better, so they withdrew as much as they could from it. They entered into houses called *Monasteries*, where they could live together with others like minded with themselves, and devote their lives to prayer, study, and pious works. They took vows not to marry, not to hold money or lands, and to obey the abbot or head of the monastery. Those living this life were called *monks*, if men, and *nuns*, if women. It was from monks such as Augustine that England first learned the Christian faith. Now that it had accepted that faith, the best and gentlest of the English became monks and nuns. It was through the labours of these monks that we get the first English history, the first English art, and much of the earliest English poetry. For nearly a thousand years after the coming of Augustine, a great number of monks and nuns were always to be found in English monasteries, which steadily grew in numbers and importance.

CHAPTER III

How the West Saxon Kings became Lords of all England, and how the Danes settled in the Land, 626-899

Principal Persons:

Offa, King of Mercia; Egbert, King of Wessex; Ethelwulf, King of Wessex; Alfred the Great, King of Wessex; Guthrum, the Dane.

Principal Dates:

- 626-655. Northumbrian Overlordship.
- 716-821. Mercian Overlordship.
- 825-871. West Saxon Overlordship.
 - 871. Great Danish Invasion and Accession of Alfred.
 - 878. Treaty of Chippenham restores the West Saxon Overlordship.
 - 899. Death of Alfred the Great.

1. Nowadays we know that all our islands form a single country, with one king, one government, one parliament, and almost the same laws. But not very long ago things were quite different. It is not so very far back that single state. Ireland, Scotland, and Wales were thus joined together with England. And if we go back still further we shall find that there once was a time when England itself was ruled by many kings, and broken up into many little states. It is now our business to trace the steps by which the petty kingdoms into which England was once divided were bit by bit united into a single state ruled by a single king. When our history has come nearer our own

days, we shall also have to see how in turn Scotland, Wales, and Ireland were gradually joined to this single English state to form our present United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

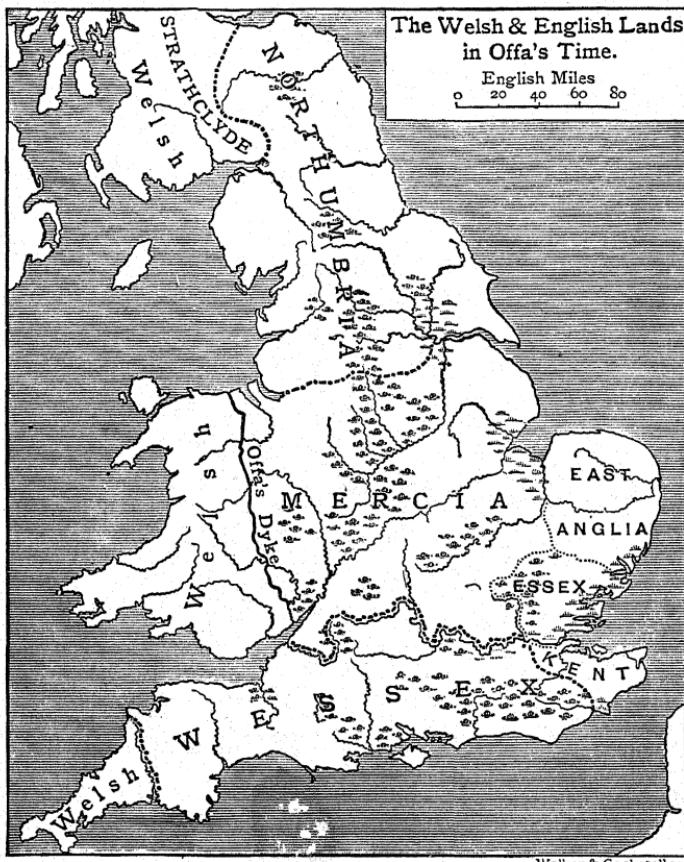
2. We have already learned how, when the English first came to Britain, they set up many little kingdoms. We have also seen how, almost from the beginning, these little kingdoms began to conquer each other, and how the stronger ones made themselves masters over the weaker ones. Thus Ethelbert of Kent was overlord over many English states. His son-in-law, Edwin of Northumbria, made himself even more powerful. Though Penda and his Mercians twice overthrew the Northumbrian kings, the successors of Edwin triumphed in the end. Thus it was that the seventh century after Christ, which saw the establishment of the Christian faith among the English, also saw the setting up of what was called the *Northumbrian Overlordship*. The Northumbrian kings owed much of their influence to the support of the Church which they had done so much to uphold. But they were also strong men and clever soldiers, so that they could put down by arms any other state that rose up in revolt against them. As long as wise kings remained rulers of Northumbria their overlordship continued. But after 685 weak princes arose in the north, and then power passed away from Northumbria.

3. There were only two other English states big enough to step into Northumbria's place. The little kingdoms like Kent and Essex had already been swallowed up by their greater neighbours. Just as Northumbria ruled all the north, so did Mercia rule all the Midlands, and Wessex all the southern parts of England. After the fall of Northumbria, *Mercia* became the chief English state, and its kings were overlords over

The North-
umbrian
Overlord-
ship.

The
Mercian
Overlord-
ship.

all England for the whole of the eighth century. The most famous of the Mercian rulers of this time was *Offa the Mighty*, who extended his power beyond the

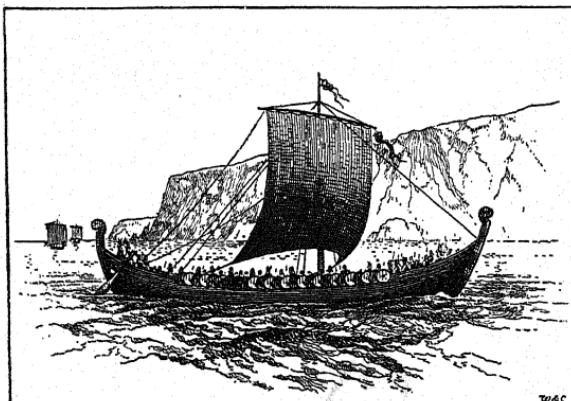


Severn, and dug a great trench between the Dee and the Wye to separate his Mercian kingdom from his Welsh neighbours. We can still see parts of this trench which is still called *Offa's dyke*. But after

Offa's death Mercia became weak like Northumbria, and power passed still farther southwards to Wessex.

4. The first West Saxon king to be overlord was *Egbert*, who won a battle over the Mercians in 825, and forced them to acknowledge him as ^{The West} overlord. He handed on power to his son, ^{Saxon Over-} ^{lordship.} the pious and gentle *Ethelwulf*. But during the reign of this king a new trouble burst upon England, and threatened to undo all the good that kings like Offa and Egbert had worked. This was the coming of the Danes, or Norsemen.

5. The *Danes* and *Norsemen* lived in the extreme north of Europe, in Denmark and Norway. (See Map on p. 34.) They were now much in the same condition as that in which the English had ^{The Coming} ^{of the Danes.} been when they crossed over from North Germany to southern Britain. They were fierce war-



A Danish Ship (a reconstruction).

riors, obstinate heathens, very brave and hardy, but also very greedy and cruel. They were splendid sailors, and finding that their own poor and cold lands could not support them all in comfort, they formed the habit of setting forth every summer in their long,

narrow, undecked ships to plunder the richer and sunnier lands of the south. In the winter they went home to their own land and revelled on their spoils. They filled all Europe with their expeditions, and spread terror far and wide. The weak king Ethelwulf was unable to withstand such fierce enemies. They came to and from England whenever they chose, and at last they found that the land was not only a good field for plunder but an attractive place for settlement. Henceforth they changed their object, and like the English four hundred years earlier, they strove to set up new homes for themselves in our island. It seemed as if the English were now going to suffer the fate they had themselves once inflicted on the Welsh.

6. Ethelwulf was already dead when the Danes began to make settlements in England. During the reigns of his four sons, who succeeded one after the other to the West Saxon throne, the Danes conquered Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia, and at last invaded Wessex itself. But they found their match in the famous *Alfred*, the youngest of Ethelwulf's sons, who became King of the West Saxons in 871, at the very moment when the heathens were plundering and devastating the land. The young king withstood the invaders with all his strength. But they pressed him so hard that he was forced for a time to abandon his kingdom and hide in the marshes of *Athelney* in Somerset. He soon, however, came out of his hiding-place, and rallying his countrymen round him, won a great victory over *Guthrum*, the Danish leader.

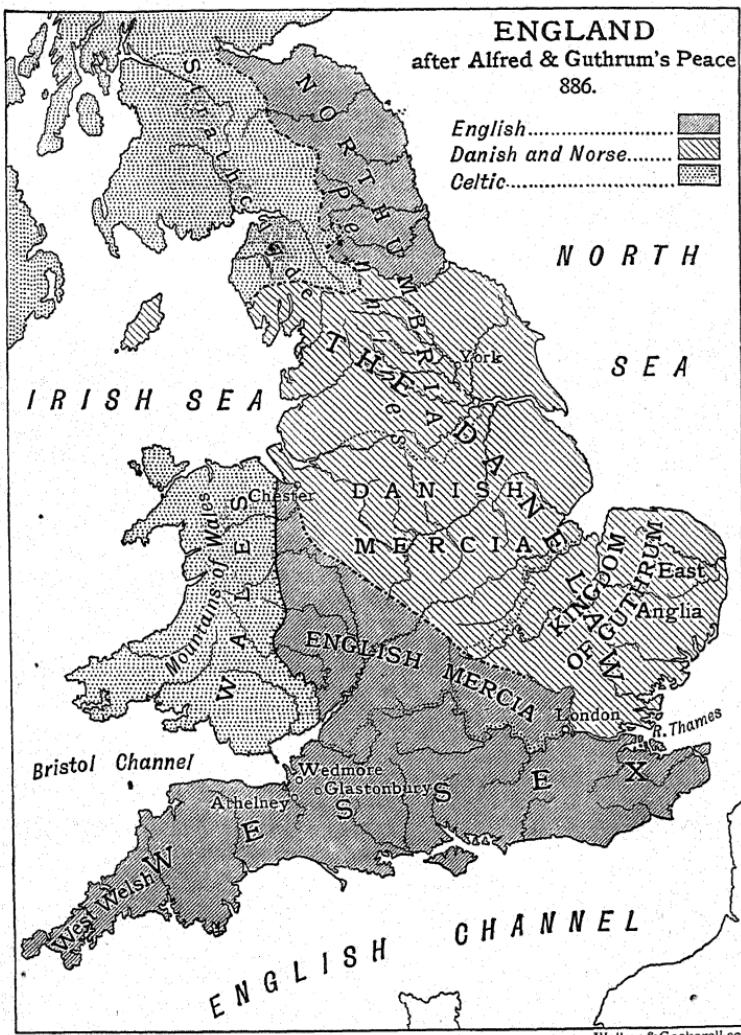
7. In 878 Alfred and Guthrum made a treaty at *Chippenham*, in which they agreed to divide England between them. This agreement is often called the *Treaty of Wedmore*, from a place in Somerset, where Alfred and Guthrum held further meetings a short

time afterwards. In a few years war broke out again. But Alfred won fresh battles over the Danes, and in 886 forced them to make a second treaty by which he secured still better terms for the English. After this second treaty London became part of Alfred's dominions. We do not exactly know where the dividing line between English and Danes ran, but it is often thought that it was drawn from Chester to London, following for the most part the old Roman road called the Watling Street. Thus it cut England into two halves. North of the line the Danes were to govern as they pleased, but south of it Alfred and his West Saxons were to rule. Moreover, the Danes promised to become Christians, and with their new faith they gradually put off their fierceness and cruelty. There were not perhaps very many of them, so that there was no need for them to drive away all the English from the parts of England over which they bore rule. But they divided the lands among themselves, and forced the English to work for them, and governed them according to the Danish law. For this reason the parts of England north of Alfred's line were called the *Dane law*.

8. The Danes were not very different from the English in tongue and manners. Before long in the North and Midlands ruling Danes and conquered English were fused into a single people, speaking the English language, and differing only from the more sluggish Southerners by keeping a little of the fierceness and energy of the Danish pirates. You can still tell what parts of England were settled by the Danes by noticing in a map the districts where the word 'by' occurs as an ending of place-names. 'By' in Danish meant a village, a word which in English was expressed by 'ton,' or 'town.' If you see, for instance,

Alfred's
treaties
with
Guthrum.

The Dane
law and
Alfred's
kingdom.



a place called Kirkby or Kirby, you know that it was situated in the Dane law. In the English parts of the land it would have been called Kirkton or Churchtown. All these words mean a village with a church.

9. In thus dividing his country with the Danes, Alfred saved England from destruction. But he did much more than that. He enlarged the boundaries of Wessex by taking into it the great triangle of lands between the upper Thames, Offa's Dyke, and the boundary of the Dane law. Moreover, the Danes, in their conquest of the north and east, had broken down the old kingdoms of East Anglia, Northumbria, and northern Mercia. It is true that they set up in their place a large number of petty Danish states. But each of these was so small that it was easy for Alfred to make them acknowledge his supremacy as overlord, so that the West Saxon overlordship, shaken for a time by the Danish invasions, was soon fully restored. Even the Welsh princes bowed before Alfred as their master. Alfred was so wise and prudent that he was content with being recognised as overlord. In his time, at least, the Danes were allowed to go on ruling in their Dane law under his supremacy.

How Alfred
restored the
West Saxon
supremacy.

10. Thus Alfred showed that he was not the King of the West Saxons only, but that he was the friend and champion of all the English race. He was, however, a modest man, and was content to call himself what his forefathers had been styled, King of the West Saxons. But, in fact, he is the first king of all the English, and the founder of that single monarchy of England which had thus at last grown up out of the earlier temporary overlordships. Before Alfred's days there was every chance that the West Saxon overlordship would come to an end like the earlier supremacies of the Northumbrians and Mercians. It was due to Alfred's skill and courage that it became permanent, so that the

English kingship grew gradually out of it. Alfred's son, Edward the Elder, saw this so clearly that he dropped How Alfred his father's title and called himself King prepared of all the English. The blood of Alfred the way for English has run in the veins of nearly all our later unity. English kings and queens, and our *King Edward VII.* is one of his descendants. We must then particularly reverence King Alfred, who more than a thousand years ago first gave the English race their union under a single king.

11. Having thus divided the land with Guthrum and his followers, Alfred took good care to prevent the

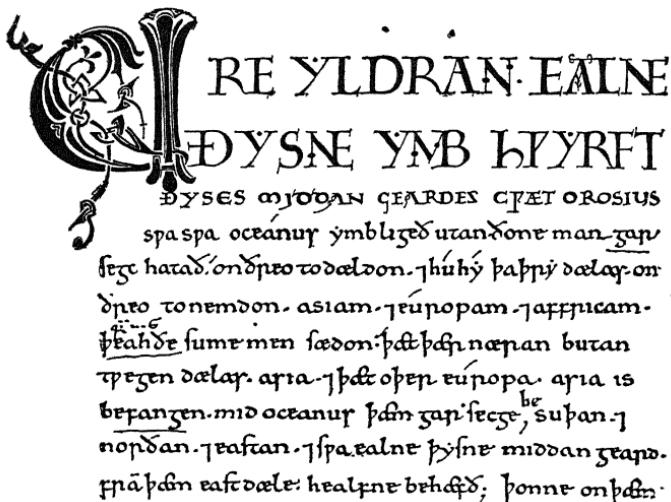
Alfred's Danes from giving him any trouble in the reforms. future. He set on foot a new sort of army,

so that if the Danes came once more into the land, they might find the English ready to meet them. But he was not content to wait until the Danes had actually landed in England. He built fine ships, strong and swift enough to meet the Danish fleets on the sea, and so to save his country from the miseries of invasion. Alfred's navy made him the first founder of the greatness of England at sea, of which we are still so proud. It is curious that before his time the English had quite forgotten that in the old days of the migration their forefathers had been seamen as bold and hardy as the Danes themselves. But after Alfred's reign they never quite put this out of mind. And though evil times came when Alfred's navy was forgotten, it at least served its turn in frightening off fresh Danish invaders. Though there was plenty of fighting between Alfred's successors and the Danes, it was no longer a struggle between men dwelling in the land and foreign invaders. The Danes now fought against were the Danish settlers in England, and as time went on these became Englishmen.

12. Thus Alfred showed himself the best soldier and

the best sailor that England had hitherto seen. But there were so many hard-fighting warriors in those days, that we should not remember Alfred so well or love him so much if he had been simply a soldier, like so many of our other old kings. It was his special glory that he was as wise as a statesman as he was brave as a warrior. He looked so carefully after his subjects' welfare that

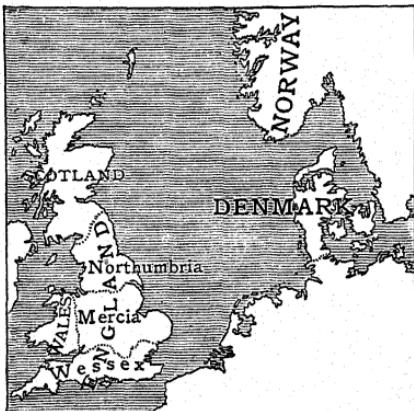
Why Alfred
was called
Alfred the
Great.



Orosius's Chronicle, translated by Alfred. (British Museum, Tib. B. 17.)
(This reproduction is rather more than half the scale of the original manuscript.)

he was able to repair the ravages wrought by the Danish invasions, and make England once more free, peaceful, and prosperous. He rebuilt the churches and monasteries which the Danes had destroyed, and strove his best to fill them with pious priests and monks who might teach his people knowledge of better things. He loved learning, and delighted to summon to his court learned men. He set up schools, and wrote books for his people's sake. He collected

the old laws together into a form in which men could read and understand them more easily. He had histories written or translated to tell his people how their forefathers had lived and what they had done. And above all, his own life gave his subjects a constant example of all that was pure, noble, and saintly. As pious and learned as a monk, Alfred yet lived in the world and for the world. His hard work and self-denial are the more praiseworthy since he was constantly troubled with ill-health. He died in 899, when still in the prime of life. By after ages he was called Alfred the Great, and few kings in history have a better right to that honourable name.



Walker & Cockerell sc.

The Old Homes of the Norsemen.

CHAPTER IV

How England became one Kingdom, and how it was Conquered by the Danes, 899-1042

Principal Persons :

Edward the Elder, first King of the English ; Edgar the Peaceful, Lord of all Britain ; St. Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury ; King Ethelred the Unready ; Swegen, King of the Danes ; King Edmund Ironside ; King Cnut.

Principal Dates :

- 899-924. Reign of Edward the Elder.
- 959-975. Reign of Edgar the Peaceful.
- 960. Dunstan made Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 978-1016. Reign of Ethelred the Unready.
- 1016. Struggle of Edmund Ironside and Cnut.
- 1017-1035. Reign of Cnut.
- 1035-1042. Reigns of Harold Harefoot and Harthacnut.

1. Alfred had made a good beginning towards the unity of England. His successors were able to reap the full fruits of his victories. They were not so good or so wise as Alfred himself had been. But they were all famous warriors, and in those fierce, rough days no king could be successful unless he was a hard fighter. For more than fifty years England went on prospering. The Dane law was reconquered, and Alfred's successors were not content to be merely overlords. *Edward the Elder*, Alfred's valiant son, who reigned from 899 to 924, dropped, as we have seen, the title of King of the West Saxons, and called him-

Edward
the Elder,
first King
of all the
English, and
his sons.

self King of the English. Before long even this title was not good enough for the house of Alfred. Edward's son and successor, *Athelstan*, who reigned from 924-940, was even a mightier soldier than his father. Under his two brothers, *Edmund* (940-946) and *Edred* (946-955), who successively succeeded him to the throne, the English kings still further increased in power. Not only were all the English and Danes ruled by them, but the Scots and the Welsh, and some even of the Irish acknowledged the overlordship of the English king and called him 'father and lord.' Proud that he was thus supreme over all the many kings of the island, the English monarch now began to borrow the titles of the old Roman emperors. He sometimes called himself Emperor of Britain. The whole of our islands had at last one master.

2. On Edred's death, his nephew *Edwy* (955-959) became king. Under Edwy, a sickly boy, there was a decline of prosperity. But on his early death his throne was filled by the most famous of the successors of Alfred, Edwy's brother, *Edgar the Peaceful*, who

The reign of Edgar the Peaceful reigned from 959 to 975. A story is told how when Edgar visited Chester he was rowed down the Dee by eight Scottish and Welsh under-kings, who thus recognised his supremacy. But the greatest proof of his power was that during the sixteen years of his rule he kept England at peace. In no previous time in our history had there been so many years of tranquillity.

3. Not all the prosperity of Edgar's reign was due to the king. Edgar had the good fortune to have as his

Archbishop Dunstan. chief minister the monk *Dunstan*. Dunstan was the first of our great statesmen who was not himself a king. He began life as a monk of the abbey of Glastonbury in Somerset, and early rose to be abbot or head of that house. He was soon called away from his peaceful home to

help in ruling the kingdom. Under Edwy he was driven into banishment. Finally, King Edgar recalled him, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury, so that he was the chief man, both in the English Church and in the English State. It was largely through the prudence and wisdom of Dunstan that every part of England recognised Edgar as king. Dunstan found that some of the West Saxon nobles wished to rule harshly over Mercians, Northumbrians, and Danes. He therefore took pains to secure that every man should have his rights, and that no single part of the country should be supreme over any other part. It was through Dunstan's wise policy that the Dane law was allowed to keep many of its peculiar customs after it had been conquered by the English kings. He saw that unity could best be got by not laying too much stress on uniformity. Our forefathers were very much attached to their own neighbourhood and their own local customs. It was only by letting them live after the fashion that they liked best that they could be taught to grow proud of the name of Englishman.

4. Statesman as he was, Dunstan never forgot that he was a monk and a bishop. During the long struggle with the Danes the religious life of England had waxed very cold, and though Alfred had done much to revive it, his work had not extended to the Dane law, where there was most need for reform. During Dunstan's rule a great religious revival broke out in England. This led to a great increase of the number of monks and monasteries in the country. Dunstan favoured this movement, because he thought that monks lived the highest sort of life, and that if there were more monks there would be more religion and learning. He therefore both set the old monasteries in order, and encouraged the building of new ones. He took care, also, to

The
Monastic
Movement.

encourage learning and study. Under his guidance the monks read and wrote books. He built organs, adorned churches with ornamental metal work and beautiful carvings. Thus he did as much good for his country as a churchman as he did as a statesman.

5. Everything went well as long as Edgar was king and Dunstan was his minister. But terrible times began after Edgar's early death in 975. He Ethelred the Unready left two sons, who reigned one after the other. But the first, *Edward the Martyr* (975-978), was soon murdered, and the second, whose name was *Ethelred* (978-1016), became king when a mere boy. All might have gone well if Dunstan had remained the ruler of the country. But the enemies of the monks now won power, and drove Dunstan away. The great archbishop spent his last years peacefully, occupied only in the government of the Church. He lived, however, long enough to know that dark days were coming for England.

6. It was almost impossible in those rough times for a land to be well ruled when its king was a child. But matters did not get better in England when Ethelred grew up to manhood. He was too obstinate to be a good king; and men called him *Ethelred the Unready*, because he was always without 'rede' or good counsel. Soon things fell back into a hopeless state. The land was filled with bloodshed and violence, and there was no strong king to protect his subjects or to do justice to the poor. Before long the Danes in Denmark heard how badly things were going in England. They were still eager for plunder and warfare, and soon they began once more to take ship for England and play their old game of robbery. Thus the Danish invasions, which had almost ceased since Alfred's days, were once more renewed, and there was no King Alfred now to withstand them. Ethelred was too much of a coward to

The Danes
renew their
invasion.

fight, so he tried the plan of bribing the Danes to go away. He raised a tax called *Danegeld*, that is, Danes' money, and paid it over to the Danes on the condition that they would leave England. Next year they came back again. The more King Ethelred bribed them the more eager they were to return to a land where money was to be won so easily.

7. At last Ethelred tried an even more foolish and wicked way of getting rid of his enemies. By his orders all the Danes settled in England were suddenly attacked, and as many of them as could be caught were murdered. This happened on the feast of a saint named Brice, and is therefore called the

The Massacre of St. Brice's Day and the invasion of Swegen.

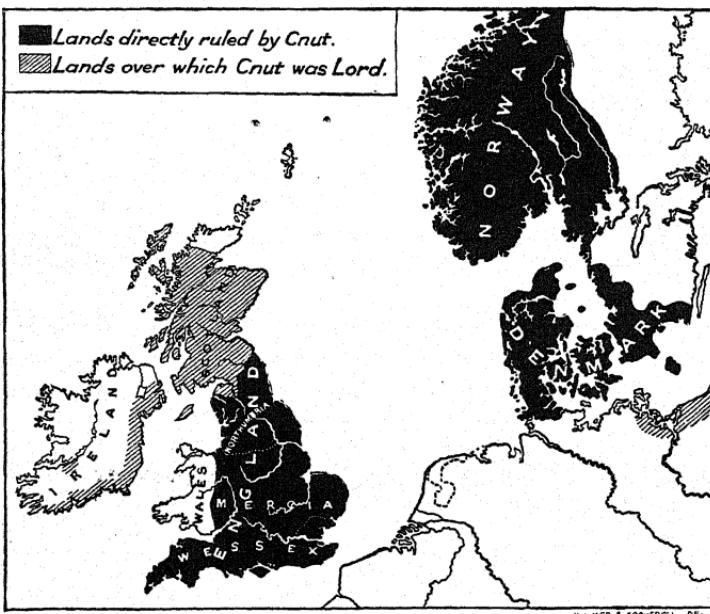
Massacre of St. Brice's Day. But such cruelty only irritated the Danes in Denmark. Before long they came to England in greater force than ever, eager to avenge their slaughtered kinsmen. Denmark, like England, had now a single king, and the Danish king's name was *Swegen*. King Swegen went to England with a great army, and soon conquered the whole land from the wretched Ethelred. After this Swegen died, but his son *Cnut* was as good a fighter as his father had been, and was also a wiser statesman. Moreover, while Swegen died a heathen, Cnut was a pious Christian. About this time the Danes of Denmark, like their brethren in England, began to accept the Christian faith.

8. Cnut would soon have made himself king, only Ethelred died in 1016, and his eldest son and successor, *Edmund*, called *Ironside* from his valour, was as brave a soldier as Cnut himself. The two kings were so evenly matched that neither could beat the other. After much hard fighting they agreed, like Alfred and Guthrum, to divide the land between them. But luckily for Cnut Edmund died in a few

The struggle of Cnut and Edmund Ironside.

months. Thereupon all England acknowledged Cnut as its king.

9. Cnut was already King of all Denmark, and before long he also made himself King of Norway. But foreigner and conqueror though he was, he soon proved



Cnut's Dominions.
(Showing the three great Earldoms in England.)

a wise and a just King of the English. He was not only a famous warrior, but anxious to govern all his dominions well, and make them more Christian and civilised. He soon saw that the English, who had long been Christians, were better fitted to help him than his barbarous fellow-countrymen the Danes. So, though he used Danes largely to do his fighting for him, he took Englishmen into his service to rule both England and Denmark. Thus it was that his reign was a

Cnut, King of Denmark, Norway and England.

period of great prosperity for England. The peaceful days of King Edgar were renewed, and Cnut, like Edgar and Dunstan, strove to revive religion and encourage the useful arts. One very famous thing Cnut did was to go on a pilgrimage to Rome, where the Pope lived, and where the burial-places of the Apostles Peter and Paul were to be seen.

10. Cnut only did one unwise thing, and that he did with a good motive. He divided his English dominions into great districts, and set over each a great officer called an *Earl*, ^{The Great Earldoms.} to act as the king's representative in those parts. One earl was set over Northumbria, another over Mercia, and a third over Wessex. This would have been a good thing, if the earls had remained obedient to the king. But they soon began to act as if they were kings in their own *earldoms*, without regard to the authority of their master. The result was that English unity, which Cnut had restored after the horrors of Ethelred's reign, was once more threatened. Before long the great earldoms practically revived the old kingdoms.

CHAPTER V

The Reigns of Edward the Confessor and Harold, 1042-1066

Principal Persons :

Edward the Confessor; Emma of Normandy, mother of Edward; William, Duke of the Normans, afterwards called William the Conqueror; Godwin, Earl of Wessex, and his sons Harold, afterwards King, and Tostig; Edwin, Earl of Mercia, and his brother Morcar, Earl of Northumbria; Edgar the *Ætheling*; Harold Hardrada, King of Norway.

Principal Dates :

- 1042-1066. Reign of Edward the Confessor.
- 1066. Reign of Harold. Battles of Stamford Bridge and Hastings.
- 1066. Christmas Day. Coronation of William the Conqueror at Westminster.

1. The Danish kings did not last very long. Cnut died in 1035, when still a young man. His two sons, *Harold Harefoot* and *Harthacnut*, ruled badly and died early. Thereupon in 1042 the English Edward the Confessor resolved to put away the foreign line altogether. They therefore called to the throne Edward, the son of Ethelred the Unready, and half-brother of Edmund Ironside. The new king was afterwards called Edward the Confessor and Edward the Saint, because of the holiness of his life. But though he was a good and pious man, he was weak, and better fitted to be a priest or a monk than a king. He reigned for twenty-four years, but he had not energy enough to carry out a policy of his own. He

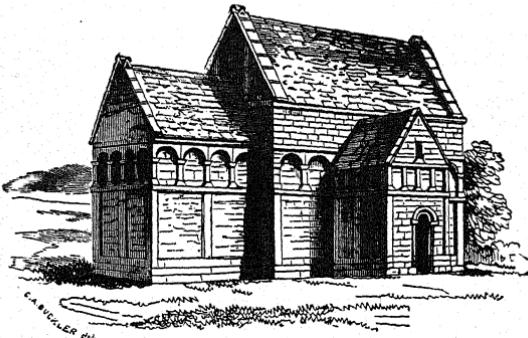
was always governed by some one stronger than himself. And his early education led him to trust men from strange lands rather than his English subjects. The result was that England, which had stubbornly resisted foreign fashions under her foreign king Cnut, seemed likely to be overrun by foreign influence as the result of the restoration of her ancient line of kings.

2. Edward's mother, Ethelred's second wife, was *Emma*, daughter of the Duke of the Normans. Edward himself had been brought up in his mother's country, and always liked the Normans and ^{The Normans} _{in France.} their ways better than he did the English.

He had many good reasons for doing so, for the Normans were the most active, energetic, brave, and clever of all the peoples in Europe in those days. Though they were quite a young nation, they had already made themselves great and famous. Their land was *Normandy*, in the north of France, and their chief city was *Rouen*, on the Seine, where their duke lived. Normandy was not quite independent, for its dukes were the subjects of the kings of the French who reigned at Paris. But the Norman duke was almost, if not quite, as powerful as the French king, and could therefore do almost as he liked. The Normans spoke French, and followed the customs and manners of the French. But they were quite new-comers in France. Their ancestors were Danes and Norsemen, who made a settlement in the north of France a few years after Guthrum and his followers had established themselves in the English Dane law. Just as the Danes in England became like Englishmen, only fiercer and more energetic Englishmen than the older settlers in the land, so did the Northmen or Normans in France become the strongest and the most active of Frenchmen. When Edward became King of the English, his cousin William was Duke of the Normans. He was a wise and just, though hard and ambitious, ruler,

and Edward was very much influenced by him and his friends.

3. Edward invited many Normans to England, and granted them lands and high offices both in Church and ^{The House of} State. He made several Normans earls, and Godwin. gave the archbishopric of Canterbury to a Norman monk. But the English hated foreigners, and particularly the pushing and energetic Normans. A great outcry against the Normans arose, and Godwin, Earl of the West Saxons, put himself at the head of the party opposed to them. Godwin was the strongest



Saxon Church at Bradford-on-Avon, Wilts.

Englishman of his day, and the enormous power that he exercised showed how mighty was the position already gained by the great earls set up by Cnut. At first, however, Edward and his Normans were able to hold their own, and even drive Godwin and his sons into banishment. But next year they came back again and expelled most of the Normans. For the rest of his reign Edward was forced to give up most of his old friends, and rule according to the advice of Godwin and his family. Godwin himself soon died, but Harold, his eldest son, was now made Earl of the West Saxons, and soon became even more powerful than his father.

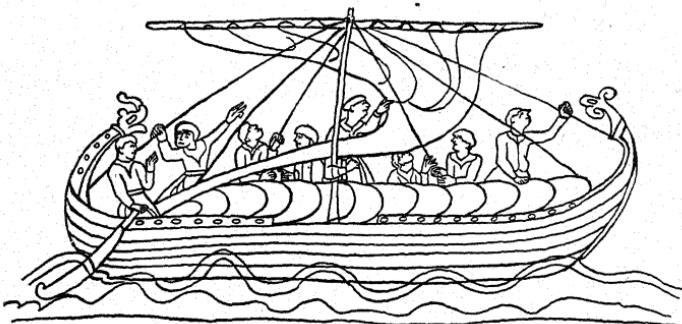
He treated Edward kindly but firmly, and took care that the land was ruled by Englishmen and not by Normans. Harold had some difficulties, however. His brother *Tostig* had been made Earl of the Northumbrians, but he governed them so badly that the Northumbrians drove him into banishment. Thereupon *Morcar*, brother of *Edwin*, Earl of Mercia, became Earl of Northumbria. Now the House of Edwin and Morcar had long been the rival of the House of Godwin and Harold. The real struggle for power lay between them. As the earls' authority grew, that of the crown became weakened. It seemed as if England were again going to split up into three states.

4. Edward did not trouble himself very much about the quarrels of the earls at his court. He was now breaking down in health, and his only keen desire was that, before he died, he might finish a new abbey that he was building at *Westminster* in honour of St. Peter the Apostle. It was the finest monastery that had yet been set up in our land, and its church was of enormous size, and stood in strong contrast to the small churches hitherto built by the English, such as the one that still survives at Bradford in Wiltshire. Moreover, it was fashioned after a new style of building that Edward now brought in from Normandy to England. The holy king just lived long enough to see his great church set apart for divine worship. A few days afterwards he died, in January 1066. He was buried in his own abbey at Westminster, under whose shadow he had passed away. When the fame of his holiness had been noised abroad, men went on pilgrimages to his tomb and called him a saint. Two hundred years after this King Henry III. pulled down Edward's church and built in its stead a still more magnificent one in the Gothic or pointed style, which was then coming into fashion. This is the Westminster Abbey which we

The death of
Edward the
Confessor.

still have, and in which all our English kings are crowned and many of them lie buried. Behind the high altar of the abbey you may still see in a little chapel the *shrine* or tomb of the sainted king.

5. Edward left no children. His nearest kinsman, was a boy named *Edgar* (called the *Ætheling* or prince), Harold made king. a grandson of Edmund Ironside. But it was thought foolish to set up a child as king, and, as there was no grown man of the royal house at hand, the nobles resolved that Harold, Earl

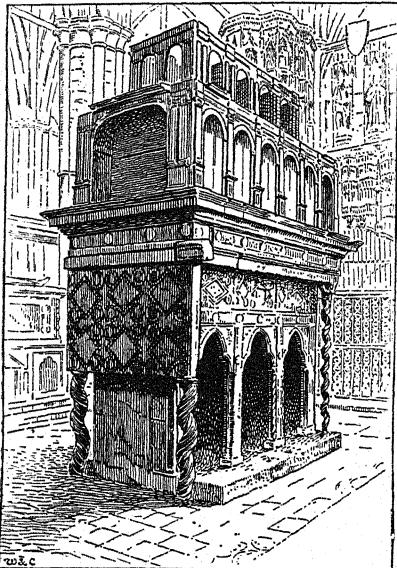


Harold returning to England.
(Bayeux Tapestry.)

of the West Saxons, should be their king. At first sight it seemed a wise choice. Harold was the strongest of the earls, and had been for years the real ruler of the kingdom. But he was not of the sacred royal house, and the other nobles soon became jealous of the man whom they looked upon as their equal. Thus it was that the strong earl proved a weak king, though he fought bravely and did all that he could to uphold his authority. But Edwin and Morcar now sought to rule Mercia and Northumbria as if they were kings themselves. Moreover, the news soon came that two foreign rulers were preparing to invade England. These were *Harold Hardrada* (that is, Hard in rede or

counsel), King of the Norwegians, and the dead king's cousin, *William*, Duke of the Normans.

6. In the summer, Harold of Norway landed in the north. He was the most famous warrior of his time, and many songs and stories tell of his prowess in battle and the strange adventures which befell him. With him came ^{Harold} _{defeats} ^{Harold} _{Hardrada.} Tostig, our Harold's banished brother, who sought, like a traitor, to win back his old earldom

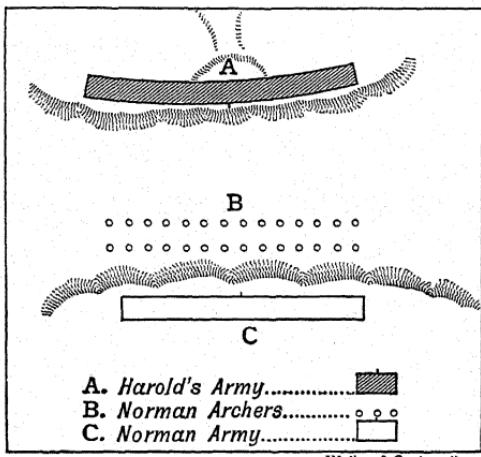


Tomb of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey.
(Built in the Thirteenth Century.)

with the help of the foreigner. Edwin and Morcar were powerless to withstand the invaders, so Harold came to their assistance. The two Harolds fought a fierce battle at *Stamford Bridge*, near York, in which the English gained a complete victory. The Norwegian king and Tostig were both slain on the field.

But triumph brought no rest for Harold. News at once came that William of Normandy had landed in Sussex, and he hurried back to the south to deal with this second foe. Edwin and Morcar, though they had been saved by Harold's help, were cowardly enough to stay behind in the north. Only his West Saxons went with Harold to meet Duke William.

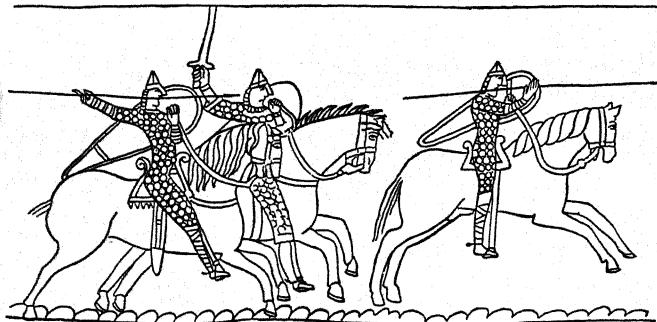
7. The decisive battle was fought at a place about seven miles north of Hastings, where the town of *Battle* afterwards grew up round the abbey which the Conqueror founded to celebrate *The Battle of Hastings.* his triumph. Harold placed his troops on a hill, and arranged them in close order. They



Battle of Hastings.

fought on foot after the ancient English fashion, and stood shoulder to shoulder protected by their long shields, which formed a sort of wall to keep off the enemy. The Normans fought on horseback according to the newer custom of the French, and strove to break down the shield wall by fierce and repeated cavalry charges, while their archers prepared the way for the

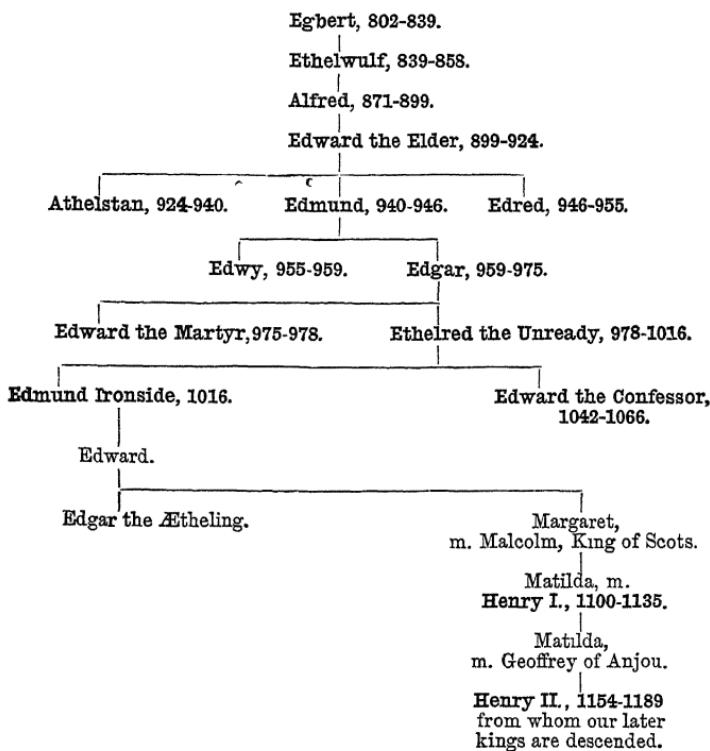
horsemen by galling the English with their arrows. For a long time the Normans were unable to drive the English from their position. But at last William cleverly ordered his men to pretend to run away. The English thought that the battle was won, and, rashly breaking up their close formation, began to pursue the enemy. But the Normans at once turned back and renewed the fight. Now that the shield wall was broken, the horseman was more than a match for



Norman Soldiers. (Bayeux Tapestry.)

the footman. The English army was soon thoroughly beaten. Harold fought bravely to the last, and died a soldier's death on the field. The West Saxons could make no further resistance. The victorious Normans marched through the southern counties at their will, and at last reached London, and took possession of the city. Thereupon the panic-stricken English made the best of a bad job and chose William as their king. On Christmas Day 1066, the Norman Duke was crowned King of the English in Edward the Confessor's new abbey of Westminster.

GENEALOGY OF THE CHIEF ENGLISH KINGS OF THE WEST SAXON HOUSE,
SHOWING THE DESCENT OF OUR LATER KINGS FROM THEM.



CHAPTER VI

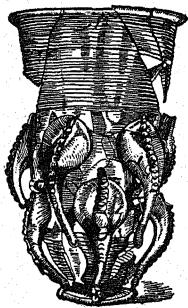
English Life before the Norman Conquest

1. Up to the Norman Conquest, the English lived a very quiet, stay-at-home life. The land was very scantily peopled, and most of the country was still taken up with waste, forest, moor, and fen. There were few towns, and little trade. The greatest city was London, which ever since Roman times had been the chief centre of commerce in the land. But London was not yet the capital, since the kings of the house of Wessex still preferred to live at the old West-Saxon royal city of Winchester. With the founding of Westminster Abbey, however, Westminster gradually became the chief residence of the king.

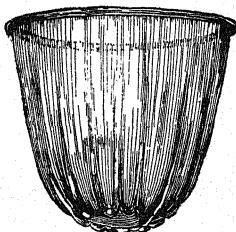
2. Nearly everybody still lived in the country, and most free Englishmen possessed a plot of land. The English were therefore a nation of farmers and herdsmen, delighting in a simple out-door life. Agriculture was very primitive, and little was grown save corn. Flocks and herds were the chief source of wealth. Even the houses of the rich were very rude and ill-built, being constructed mainly of wood. The greater part of the house was taken up by one large room called the hall. There were no glass windows, and the very few openings to let in air and light were covered with oiled rags. There were no chimneys, and the smoke of the great fire, which blazed on a hearth in the centre of

Country life.

the hall, made its way out of the building through a hole in the roof. But though life was rude, there was plenty of meat and bread, ale and mead, and our ancestors loved feasting and good cheer. The rich had some luxuries, and were fond of jewellery. A famous example of this is the Alfred jewel, which was dug up at Athelney, and of which a picture is here given. It may possibly have belonged to King Alfred himself, and bears the inscription, 'Alfred had me wrought.' Our ancestors amused themselves out of doors by



Drinking-Glass. (British Museum.)



Anglo-Saxon Glass.

hunting, and indoors by singing songs, telling stories, and guessing riddles. But perhaps their chief distraction was hard drinking.

3. The times were rude, and it was hard to make strong men obey the law. Yet the law was not very severe according to our notions. Most crimes, even murder, could be atoned for by a money payment. The sum of money paid by a murderer to the kinsman of him who was slain was called the *Wergild*. It varied in amount according to the rank of the victim. It was thought important that every freeman should possess land, not only because it enabled him to earn his own livelihood, but also because in that case, if he did any

wrong, his land could be seized by way of punishment. Those who did not possess land were compelled to choose a lord who would be responsible for their acts.

4. The lowest class of the population consisted of slaves or *theows*, who, like horses and cattle, were the absolute property of their owners. Many of these were the descendants of those who had been slaves for many generations. But criminals were often made slaves, and in times of famine it was



Gold Jewel of Alfred found at Athelney.
(Now in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford.)

not uncommon for men to sell themselves in order to obtain enough bread to support life.

5. The simple freeman, called the *ceorl* or churl, was the backbone of the community. Yet as time went on the nobles became more and more powerful. They became great owners of land, had many slaves, and were the lords of many landless men, and even of many small landholders. The most important of the nobles were called the *king's thegns* or servants. These thegns received extensive grants of land from the king, and were bound to fight for him in his wars.

Freemen
and thegns.

6. There were no regular soldiers in those days like our modern standing army, but every man was called upon to fight for his country when occasion arose. There was so much fighting, moreover, that each freeman had plenty of chances of gaining experience as a soldier. The army, called the *fyrd*, consisted then of the whole nation in arms. But the *fyrd* disliked staying long in the field or going great distances to fight, so that the king's thegns and their followers, who were more accustomed to military life and discipline, were the chief trust of the monarch when serious warfare had to be waged.

7. The king was the head of the nation, and was treated with great respect. He nearly always belonged to the royal house of Wessex, but on the king's death his successor was elected by the nobles. They almost always chose the son of the last ruler, if there were a son alive who had reached manhood. Yet a youthful son was often set aside in favour of a full-grown brother of the last king. It was thought very important that the monarch should himself be able to rule. But several boys were chosen kings for want of better qualified members of the royal house, and the cases of Cnut and Harold show that it was not impossible for the electors to go outside the West Saxon line altogether.

8. The king was elected, and when appointed was advised by a great council called the *Witenagemot*, that is, the Meeting of the *Witan* or Wise Men. It was not a representative body like our modern House of Commons, but was more like our House of Lords, consisting of great officials, such as the aldermen or earls of shires, the bishops and abbots, the king's kinsmen, and also of the king's thegns or chief nobles. The king was supposed to do nothing without consulting this body. Though a strong king could generally get his own way, a weak

one was very much dependent upon his nobles and bishops.

9. The land was divided into *shires* or counties. Some of these originated in the ancient kingdoms of the English, such as Kent or Sussex, while others, like the shires of the Midlands, were mere divisions made for convenience. In each shire there was a court called the *shire-moot*, or county court. This was a very important body. It was the chief court of justice, and all trials of importance were conducted in it. It was also a sort of popular assembly, consisting of all the great men of the shire, and also of representatives of the various *townships* into which the shire was divided. Between the shire and the township stood an intermediate division called the *hundred*, or, in the Dane law, the *wapentake*. This also had a court, called the *hundred-moot*, which, like the shire-moot, consisted of representatives of the different townships included in it. This court was the place where trials of less importance than those which were held in the shire court took place. All these local courts were very strong and popular. They had been going on for a very long time, and Englishmen in those days thought a great deal more about their own neighbourhood than they did of the land as a whole. This was one of the reasons why it was so hard to make England a united nation. But this union of England, which the sluggish, easy-going old English could never thoroughly bring about, was now to be accomplished by their strenuous, energetic, and remorseless Norman conquerors.

Shires,
hundreds,
and
townships.

BOOK II

NORMAN AND ANGEVIN BRITAIN, 1066-1216

CHAPTER VII

The Norman Kings of the English, 1066-1154

Principal Persons :

William I., the Conqueror; Hereward; Archbishop Lanfranc; Robert, Duke of Normandy; Matilda of Flanders; William II., Rufus; St. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury; Henry I.; Queen Matilda; Malcolm, King of Scots, and St. Margaret, his wife; William, son of Henry I.; Matilda, his daughter; Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, her husband; Henry of Anjou, their son; King Stephen.

Principal Dates :

- 1066-1087. Reign of William I., the Conqueror.
- 1071. Hereward's Camp at Ely captured.
- 1086. The Domesday Book drawn up.
- 1087-1100. Reign of William II., Rufus.
- 1095. First Crusade.
- 1100-1135. Reign of Henry I.
- 1135-1154. Reign of Stephen.

1. William I., called the *Conqueror*, was a fierce and ruthless king, who ruled his new kingdom with a much firmer hand than any of the kings who The Norman Conquest had gone before him. Edwin and Morcar, the Earls of Northumbria and Mercia, soon found that William would not allow them to govern their earldoms after their own pleasure, as they had done in the days of Edward the Confessor and Harold. They felt sorry that they had ever agreed to make

him king, and before long rose in revolt against him. But William and his Norman followers easily put down their rebellions and took their earldoms away from them. Even after this the English kept on rising in arms against their foreign sovereign. But as in the days of the Danish invasions, the English were too much divided among themselves to work together against the common enemy. There was therefore no general revolt, and the districts that rebelled got little help from their countrymen outside their own neighbourhood. The consequence was that the Normans were able to conquer the land bit by bit, and the English won no advantage from their numbers or their bravery. The North was the hardest part to subdue, and it was only finally secured by William laying waste all the most fertile parts of Yorkshire.

2. Even after this, some of the bravest of the English still held their own in the desolate fen country which cut off East Anglia from the Midlands. Headed by the heroic *Hereward*, they built a camp of refuge in the *Isle of Ely*, a little piece of solid ground in the midst of a wilderness of marsh and water. But at last William forced his way even to this remote stronghold, and compelled Hereward and his followers to submit. Thus after nearly four years of hard fighting, the Norman Conquest of England was completed by 1071. It had only been begun when Harold fell at Hastings.

3. All over the land William built strong castles, which he filled with Norman soldiers to keep down the English. At first these castles were formed by wooden palisades enclosing a moated mound. But before long these were replaced by solid stone structures. The most famous of these latter is the *Tower of London*, which was set up to overawe the Londoners. Another very strong Norman fortress is Rochester Castle, built under ^{Norman castles.}



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William's English and Norman Dominions.....
 Lands over which William was Lord
 Foreign Lands
 Course of William I. from St. Valery to London.....

THE DOMINIONS OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

Henry I. But there are few parts of the land in which you cannot still see the ruins of a stone-built Norman castle. Sometimes it had a high square tower built of solid stone, called the *keep*, with walls of enormous thickness. Sometimes the keep was more lightly built on



Keep of Rochester Castle.
(Built between 1126 and 1189.)

the top of a mound of earth, and was further protected by deep ditches filled with water, and high earthworks crowned with solid stone walls. As soon as a castle was built in a district, its conquest was certain to follow, since the English had no way of capturing these strongholds, in which a few Normans might wait

quietly until the king sent enough soldiers to put down a rebellion.

4. William took away from the English most of their lands and gave them to his Norman followers.

The Feudal System. He required, however, that every man who received from him a grant of land, called a

fief, should take an oath that he would be faithful to the king, and also should, as a sort of rent, be bound to send a certain number of soldiers to fight the king's battles. Such a man was called the king's *baron*, or *vassal*. The grantor of the land was called the *lord* of the vassal. In the same way the king's barons granted their land to others, who bound themselves by similar oaths and promises of service to the barons who thus became their lords. There was always a danger lest a man should uphold his nearest lord even against the king, and William tried to prevent that by ordering all landholders to take special oaths that they would be true to the king against all men. The system thus set up by William was called *feudalism*, or the *feudal system*.

5. The result of all these changes was that the English became the vassals and dependents of the

The king and the Norman barons. Norman barons who had helped William to conquer the country. The English had no longer any leaders, since William took

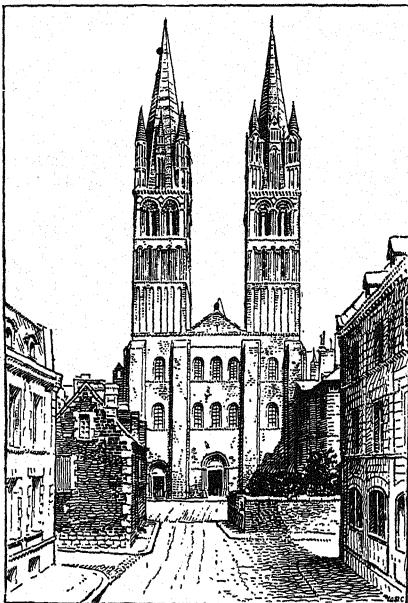
away their lands from the English nobility and gentry, and thus reduced them to poverty. The king knew very well that his fierce Norman barons did not win the land for himself only, but would insist on being well paid for their trouble. He was therefore compelled to hand over to them the lands which he had seized from the English. But the king had learned by long experience in Normandy that his nobles were not to be trusted. They wanted to get as much power as they could into their own hands, and therefore tried to prevent the king from becoming too strong.

William, however, did his best to prevent them from getting powerful. He took good care that no Norman baron should rule such great tracts of land as Edwin and Morcar had done. He put an end to the great earldoms which, ever since Cnut's days, had been breaking up the unity of the land. Instead of giving his followers wide stretches of land in the same districts, he followed the custom of earlier kings in bestowing on them a large number of little estates scattered all over the country. This policy annoyed the Normans very much, and they rose in revolt against William as often as they dared. Very often they used the castles built to keep down the English as the means of resisting the authority of the king. But William showed that he was too strong for his barons.

6. In a few years the Conqueror managed to win over the English to his side. The poor English soon found out that the barons were far worse tyrants than the king. William wished all those who ^{William and the English.} obeyed his rule to live in comfort and peace, and often protected the English from the tyranny of the petty Norman barons who were their direct lords. It soon became a matter of course that the English fought for the king against his Norman barons. Through their help William made himself one of the strongest kings in Europe. He tried to please them by carrying on as far as he could the old customs of the English. He said that he was the rightful heir of Edward the Confessor, and that he would therefore rule the land by Edward's own laws. But besides this William was a just man, terrible to his enemies, but kind to those who did his bidding. For all these reasons the changes brought about by the Norman Conquest, great as they were, were not so great as they would have been if William had never had reason to fall back on the English people for help against the unruly Norman barons.

7. William brought about almost as many changes in the Church as in the State. He got rid of nearly all the English bishops and abbots, and put Normans or other foreigners in their places. He gave the archbishopric of Canterbury to *Lanfranc*, a learned and able Italian monk who had long lived in Normandy. *Lanfranc*

The Norman
Conquest
and the
Church.



Church of St. Etienne (Stephen), Caen.
(Containing the tomb of William the Conqueror.)

and William reformed the whole condition of the English Church. They made the clergy more active, hard-working, and better educated. They set up new monasteries, and gave them rich grants of land. They covered the country with vast and noble churches and cathedrals, built after that Norman fashion first brought into the land when Edward the

Confessor founded Westminster Abbey. A magnificent example of the Norman style of building in the Normans' own land can still be seen in the church of St. Stephen at Caen, of which William was the founder, and in which he lies buried. One result of the changes now introduced into the Church was that the Pope became more powerful in England than he had ever been before. In Church as in State the English had to give way to the foreigners. For a long time the Normans held all the high posts. French took the place of English as the language of the upper classes.

8. The Normans were the most restless and enterprising people in Europe, and brought into England all sorts of changes that the English would have been too lazy to introduce if they had been left to themselves. Hence it was that, though they did much evil, on the whole they did more good than harm. Gradually they taught the English some of their energy and spirit. In order to carry out his reforms properly William I. wished to raise as heavy taxes as he could. With this object he strove to find out how much land and other property everybody possessed, as he could then tax each man in proportion to his means. He therefore drew up a book called the *Domesday Book*, in which was written down, as if for the day of doom or judgment, what lands there were in England, who held them, and how much he was bound to pay the king for them. The English grumbled at all these things being put on record, for they knew it would enable the king to get every possible penny of taxes from them. But we have reason to be grateful to William, since his *Domesday Book* gives us an enormous amount of information as to the state of England at this period. Like most books of the time it was written in Latin.

9. William married *Matilda* of Flanders. They had

three sons, *Robert*, *William*, and *Henry*. The eldest, Robert, was a good-natured, easy-going man, and a brave soldier. But he was not so strong or so clever as his father, and was more friendly with the Norman barons than William wished. On one occasion Robert rose in rebellion

xxv. **TERRA** **Willi de Bratose.** **fr. Recouers**
 Willi de Bratose ten de rege. Suscort. bycunars
 tenut de rege. E. Té se defit p. iii. hid. modo p. una hid.
 fr. e. iii. car. In dno. e. una. 7 v. uilli 7 v. bord. cu. iii.
 car. Ibi molin de. xviii. solid. 7 pescaria de. l. denar.
 Valut. vii. lib. modo. c. solid.

xxvi. **TERRA** **Willeloni. lovet** **fr. Treschuk.**
 Willi lovet ten de regedatione. Iba tenut de rege. E.
 in alod. Té se defit p. viii. hid. modo p. i. hid. 7 una. v.
 fr. e. v. car. In dno. dim. car. 7 iii. uilli 7 iii. bord. cu. ii.
 car. Ibi. vi. serui. 7 molin de. x. solid. 7 iii. ac. pa.
 Silua de. v. port. Valut. viii. lib. 7 post. c. sol. modo. hoc. sol.
 Ist. W. ten due boates. Iba tenut **fr. Blesus resens**
 de rege. E. in alod. p. 20. To. 7 m. p. iii. hid. 7 una. 5.
 fr. e. ii. car. Ibi. sunt. ii. uilli 7 v. bord. cu. ii. car.
 7 xiii. ac. pa. Silua ad clausu. Valut. xl. sol. modo. xx. solid.
 Ist. W. ten aches. Iba tenut **fr. Blesus resens**
 de rege. E. Té p. v. hid. m. p. ii. hid. 7 dim. 7 fr. e.
 iii. car. In dno. e. una. 7 iii. uilli 7 iii. car. cu. i. car.
 7 dim. Ibi molin de. xii. sol. 7 vi. den. 7 xl. de. pa.
 Valut. vi. lib. 7 ualec. quis reddit. vi. lib.

Part of *Domesday Book*.
 (About Three-fourths Scale of Original)

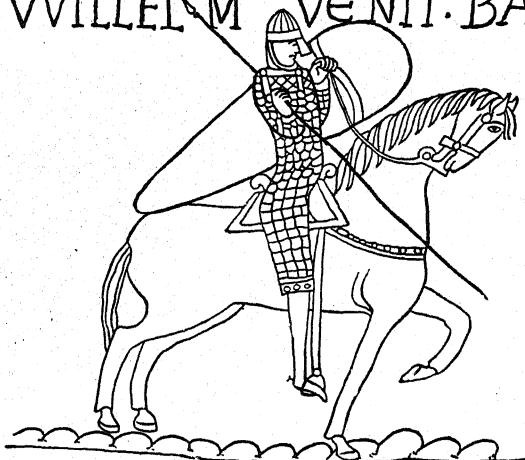
against the old king, who had much trouble before he could reduce him to submission. The second son, William, called *Rufus* or the Red from the colour of his hair, was more a man after the Conqueror's own heart. He was fierce, strong, and cruel, but he was neither so just nor so religious as the old king. But England in those days had need of a vigorous ruler,

and the Conqueror on his death-bed declared that he wished William and not Robert to succeed him.

10. Things happened as the Conqueror had desired. In 1087, through Lanfranc's help, William Rufus became William II., and Robert was forced to content himself with the duchy of Normandy. But the Norman barons in England preferred Robert to William, since they knew that

The reign
of William
Rufus.

VVILLELM M VENIT: BAGIAS



William goes to Bayeux. (Bayeux Tapestry.)

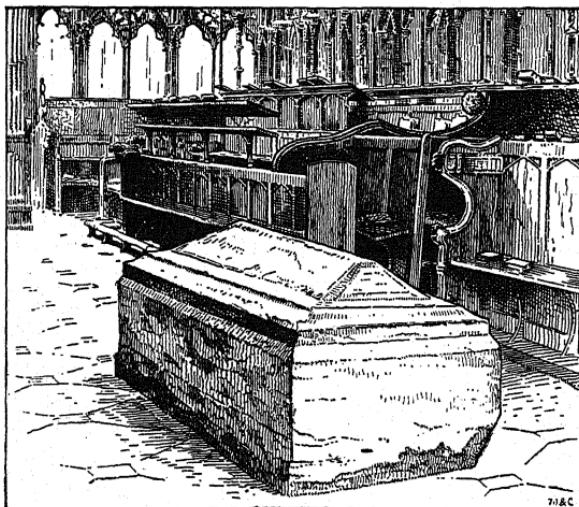
they would be more likely to get their own way under his weak and careless rule. They therefore several times rose in revolt, hoping to drive away Rufus and make Robert king. However, William was easily able to put down these rebellions. The English supported Rufus against the barons. They knew that he was a cruel tyrant, but they also knew he could protect them, and they felt that it was better for them to be ruled by one powerful king than by many petty barons.

11. For the first years of his reign the Red King was kept in check by the aged Archbishop Lanfranc. But Lanfranc soon died, and then William became more greedy, fierce, and brutal than he had been before. He refused to make a new Archbishop of Canterbury, partly because he wished to keep in his own hands the rich lands of the archbishop, and partly because he was afraid lest the new archbishop, like Lanfranc, would act as a curb on his evil desires. But at last William was smitten with a sudden fever and thought he was going to die. He was frightened into repentance for his many sins, and as a sign of his wish to amend his ways, he agreed to an archbishop being chosen. The man he took for the office was a pious monk named *Anselm* who, like Lanfranc, had gone from Italy to Normandy, and was then the abbot of the same monastery in Normandy in which Lanfranc had lived. Anselm was a very learned man who wrote famous books, but he was as gentle, holy, and simple as he was learned. He had no desire to be made archbishop, but the sick king forced him to accept the office. Soon afterwards William regained his health, and at once fell back into his evil and tyrannical courses. He thought Anselm too weak to resist him, and began to worry and persecute the archbishop by all sorts of petty devices. But Anselm felt that it was his duty to uphold all the ancient rights of the see of Canterbury, and to strive to teach the king and his courtiers the way to a more honest and noble life. The gentle archbishop showed himself as strong in upholding what was good as the wicked king was strong in upholding what was evil. Neither would yield to the other, but at last Anselm was forced to leave the country and to remain in exile for the rest of Rufus' reign.

12. The favourite amusement of the Norman kings

and their nobles was hunting. William the Conqueror, we are told, loved the tall deer as if he had been their father. He made large forests wherein wild beasts might roam freely, and ordered that any man who killed a deer or a boar should be blinded. In Hampshire he drove out the inhabitants of many villages in order to make the forest which is still called the *New Forest*. This

Death of
William
Rufus.



Tomb of William Rufus in Winchester Cathedral.

was a very favourite hunting-ground of our Norman kings. Now Rufus was as keen a huntsman as his father had been. He made many fresh forests and terribly oppressed the poor by the severity of his forest laws. One day in 1100 he went from Winchester to hunt in the New Forest. In the midst of his sport he was shot through the heart by an arrow from an unknown hand. His body was brought back to Winchester in a poor charcoal burner's cart, and was buried in the cathedral there, where his tomb

may still be seen. No priest durst say a prayer for the wicked king, cut off in the midst of his sin, unrepentant and unshiven. Yet with all his wickedness, he did good service to England by keeping the barons in order and allowing no one to oppress his subjects but himself.

13. Once more the barons sought to make Robert king, and once more the first-born of the Conqueror had



The South Gate of Cardiff Castle about the Year 1775.
(The Buildings here shown are not older than the Fourteenth Century.)

to give way to a stronger and wiser younger brother. Henry I., the youngest son of William I., was now made king. He was even more like his father than was the Red King. But though less violent and fickle than William II., he was nearly as cruel and as selfish. However, he made a far better king and a much more popular one. Born on English soil after his father had been crowned king, he was looked upon as half an Englishman. He

Henry I. becomes king.

married *Matilda*, daughter of *Malcolm*, King of Scots, and his wife *St. Margaret*, a very pious and good lady, who was a granddaughter of *Edmund Ironside*, the sister of *Edgar the Ætheling*, and the heiress of the old West Saxon kings. Through her our later kings are descended from *Egbert*, *Alfred*, and *Edgar*, as well as from *William the Conqueror*. This marriage still further increased *Henry's* popularity with the English, who supported him in his wars with his barons with even more zeal than they had upheld his brother. With English help *Henry* easily put down the revolts of the barons in favour of *Robert*. After six years he conquered Normandy, and once more joined together the duchy with the English crown. *Robert* was taken prisoner, and spent the rest of his life shut up in *Cardiff Castle*. After this no baron durst raise his hand against *Henry*.

14. When *Henry* became king, *Anselm* came back to England, but soon a quarrel broke out between him and the king, and the good archbishop was for a second time driven into exile. How- ^{Quarrel of} *Henry I. and* *Anselm*. ever, things were not as bad now as they had been in *Rufus'* time, and before long *Henry* and *Anselm* found out a way of settling their differences. The archbishop went back to England and became for the rest of his life the king's close friend and helper.

15. *Henry* raised heavy taxes and cruelly put down all rebellions. But under his rule the land once more became prosperous. Men called him the *Lion of Righteousness* because of his justice, and an English monk thus spoke of him at his death: 'He was a good man, and great was the awe of him. No man durst ill-treat another in his days. He made good peace for man and beast.'

*Henry I.'s
just rule.*

16. A great sorrow clouded Henry's old age. This was the death of his son *William*. The young prince sailed from Normandy to England in a fine new vessel called the *White Ship*. The ship struck on a rock off the Norman coast, and smashed in her side. The loss of the White Ship and the death of Henry I. William was put into a boat, and might have escaped safely to land. But his sister was on the sinking ship, and cried loudly to him to come to her help. William ordered the sailors to return, but when he drew near the *White Ship*, so many pressed into the boat that they sank it, and only one man survived to tell the tale. Henry now sought to persuade his barons to allow his daughter *Matilda* to reign after his death. The barons were very unwilling to agree to this, partly because they did not like to be ruled by a woman, and partly because *Matilda* was married to *Geoffrey*, Count of Anjou, and the Normans hated the Angevins, as the men of Anjou were called. But the king's will prevailed, and all the barons took oaths to obey *Matilda* as their future queen.

17. Henry I. died in 1135. Thereupon the barons broke their promises, and chose as their king *Count Stephen of Boulogne*, Henry's nephew, and a grandson of the Conqueror. The misrule of King Stephen. Stephen was a mild, good-natured, and kindly man, a brave soldier, and the most lovable of all the Norman kings. But like his uncle, Duke Robert, he was weak and soft, and the barons soon found out that if they chose to disobey him, the new king was not strong enough to enforce his will. Before long *Matilda* came to England and claimed her father's throne. A long civil war followed. Some of the barons upheld *Stephen* and others *Matilda*. But few of them really cared for either, and most only wished that the quarrel should go on as long as possible, and

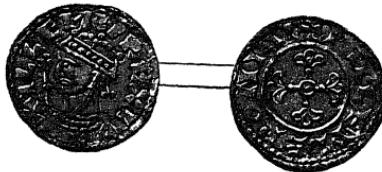
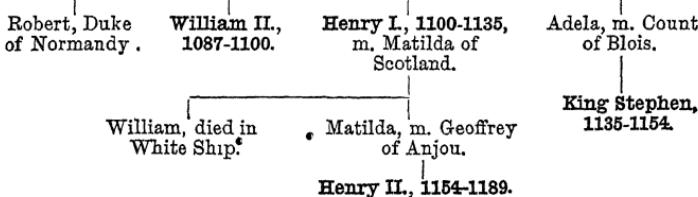
that neither rival for the throne should get the upper hand over the other. At last Matilda gave up the struggle in despair, but even then Stephen could not restore law and order. As he grew old, Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son, came to England to revive his mother's claim. The broken-spirited Stephen had no heart to fight against him, but consented to recognise Henry as his successor, if he were allowed to go on reigning until his death. Henry agreed to these terms, and went back to France. Thus Stephen remained king, so far as the title went, until his own death in 1154. But for all these nineteen years he had been king only in name.

18. An English monk has told us of the terrible state of the country during Stephen's reign. 'Every rich man built castles and filled them with evil men. They took those who had any goods and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. Many thousands died of hunger. Thou mightest walk a whole day's journey without seeing the lands tilled. Then was corn dear and flesh, for there was none in the land. The land was all ruined by such misdeeds, and it was said openly that Christ and His saints slept.' These terrible years taught the people what the rule of the nobles meant, and how everything depended on restoring the power of the crown. The lesson was so well learned that England never again had to suffer as she suffered under King Stephen.

State of
England
during the
war between
Stephen and
Matilda.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN KINGS.

William I., 1066-1087, m. Matilda of Flanders.



A Silver Penny of William the Conqueror, struck at Romney.

CHAPTER VIII

Henry II. (of Anjou), 1154-1189 (Married Eleanor of Aquitaine)

Principal Persons:

Henry II., Eleanor of Aquitaine, their sons, Henry the Younger, Richard, Geoffrey, and John; Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Principal Dates:

- 1154. Accession of Henry II.
- 1164. Henry quarrels with Archbishop Thomas.
- 1166. Assize of Clarendon.
- 1170. Murder of St. Thomas.
- 1171. Henry becomes Lord of Ireland.
- 1181. Assize of Arms.
- 1189. Death of Henry II.

1. With Henry II.'s accession begins a new race of English kings, which is generally called the Angevin family, or the *House of Anjou*, from Henry's father, Count *Geoffrey of Anjou*. It is also sometimes called the *House of Plantagenet*, from the yellow broom-flower, called in Latin the *Planta genista*, which Count Geoffrey wore in his helmet by way of a badge. Under him the houses of Normandy and Anjou, hitherto rivals and enemies, became united. But besides this we should not forget that Henry II. was also descended through his grandmother, Matilda, the queen of Henry I., from the old West Saxon line of English kings. He was the first king since Edward the Confessor in whose veins flowed the blood of the old English kings.

2. Henry was one of the cleverest of all our kings. Not even William the Conqueror had greater ability, and no king has had a deeper influence on our later history. He was a fierce, restless man, working very hard at the business of governing his dominions, and fond of trying new ways of ruling. He was terribly passionate, and raved like a madman when swayed by bursts of temper. But he was shrewd, prudent, and far-sighted, a great warrior, and a greater statesman.

3. Henry was already a powerful ruler when Stephen's death made him King Henry II. of England. From his mother ^{Henry II.'s} Matilda he inherited continental Normandy, and from dominions. his father, Count Geoffrey, he had obtained Anjou and a rich territory in central France. He had largely increased his power by his marriage with *Eleanor of Aquitaine*, the heiress of the old line of the Dukes of Aquitaine, who ruled over a vast territory in southern France extending from the river Loire to the mountains of the Pyrenees. Moreover, a few years later Henry married one of his sons, Geoffrey, to the heiress of Brittany, and afterwards ruled over that country as its lord. All this made Henry a much more important man in France than the French king himself. But his wide possessions also brought many troubles to him. Both his southern and northern French territories were filled with a nobility as greedy and as quarrelsome as were the Norman nobles in England during the evil days of Stephen. Moreover, Henry's French dominions



Planta genista.

constantly led him into difficulties with his overlord, the king of the French, who was very jealous of him. Yet he was strong enough to deal with all these troubles. When he had added England to his other dominions, he was as powerful as any king in Europe.

4. It was Henry II.'s first business in England to



Queen Eleanor of Aquitaine,
Wife of Henry II.

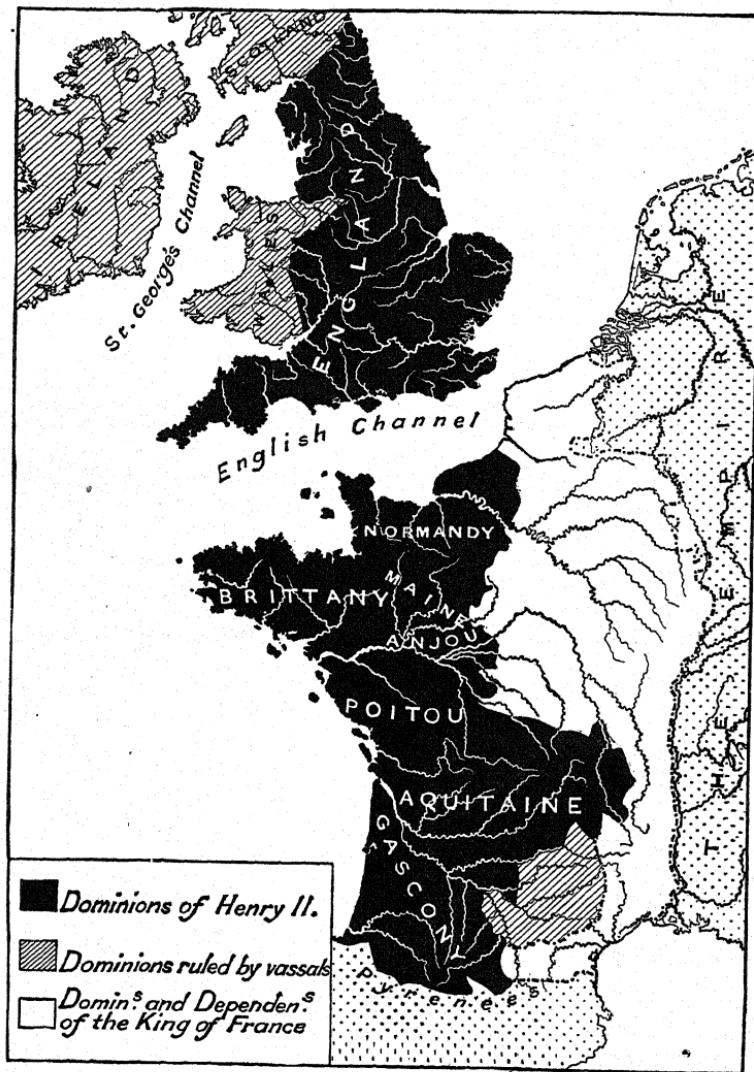


Henry II.

put an end to the disorders of Stephen's reign and restore law and peace. He pulled down most of the new castles which the barons had built without the king's leave during

The restora-
tion of law
and order.

Stephen's reign, and took care that those castles which remained should be garrisoned by men whom he



THE ANGEVIN EMPIRE.

could trust. Some of the barons tried to resist him, but they were easily subdued. In a very few years things were again much as they had been under Henry I. There was the same stern, hard rule, the same heavy taxes. But the mass of the people suffered these things willingly, as they knew that the king alone could save them from the cruel tyrants of Stephen's days.

5. Henry II. was not long content with simply copying what his grandfather had done. He drew up a series of new laws called *Assizes*, in which he made many great reforms. Henry II.'s reforms.

By one of these Assizes, called the *Assize of Clarendon* (1166), he introduced a new method of trying persons accused of murder or other crimes.

He ordered his judges or *justices* to go from time to time to every county in the land, and to call together from each county

The Assize of Clarendon and Trial by Jury.

a body of men able to tell them what persons had committed any crimes within that county.

This body was called a *jury*, that is, a body of sworn men, who got that name from the oath which they swore to tell the truth. It was chosen in the shire-moot, which still went on as it had done before the Norman Conquest. And by bringing the old English shire-moot into close touch with the new royal justices, Henry did a great deal to join together the ancient customs of the English with the new system brought in by the Norman kings. Moreover, Henry found juries so very convenient, that he employed them for many other purposes also. His habit of using them caused the system of *trial by jury*, which still goes on in England, to be established in our land. To this day the king's judges still go round to every county to try prisoners as they did in the reign of Henry II., and they still use the jury system which Henry first made general.

6. Henry made another good law called the *Grand Assize*, which set up a jury to decide who was the rightful owner of a piece of land. Before his time, if a man claimed to be holder of a piece of land, his only way to get it was to challenge the actual pos-

The Grand Assize. sessor to fight him for the land. This was called *trial by battle*, and it was believed

that God would give the victory to the man who had the best right. But men now thought that they had no business thus to call upon God's name in vain, and the trial by jury offered by Henry was welcomed as a great boon to the weak and feeble.

7. Another of Henry's laws was called the *Assize of Arms* (1181). By it the king ordered every free-

The Assize of Arms and Scutage. man to provide himself with arms, so that he might serve the king in his wars. Thus

not only the nobles who held land of the king, but all freemen, were called upon to fight for their country. Thus the old English *fyrd*, or popular militia, was revived. So little did Henry trust his nobles, that he was often glad to let them off their duty of fighting for him. Instead of personal service they paid him *scutage*, or shield money, with which he was able to hire anybody that he would to serve him as a soldier.

8. During Henry's long and peaceful reign the English and the Normans gradually became united with each

The Normans and English people. other. We have seen how Henry's own grandmother was an Englishwoman. Many of the nobles had also married English

ladies, so that their descendants had English as well as Norman ancestors. Moreover, as the old noble families died out, new ones arose in their place which had nothing to do with Normandy, but were purely English by descent and property. Nevertheless the king's vast French dominions kept

up close ties between England and the Continent. The king and his courtiers and nobles continued as a rule to talk French, but these French-speaking Englishmen soon became thoroughly English in feeling, and were always very willing to fight the French kings. By Henry II.'s time nobody knew or cared who was of English and who was of Norman descent.

9. In carrying out his early reforms Henry had been much helped by a young priest named *Thomas Becket*, a London merchant's son of great cleverness and zeal, who served as the king's

Thomas.
Becket.

chancellor—that is to say, as the keeper of his seal and secretary. When Henry had been king nearly ten years he made Thomas Archbishop of Canterbury, hoping that in this great office his faithful minister would continue to look after the royal interests, and do the king's work as he had when he was chancellor. It was very necessary for a king to be good friends with the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Church was extraordinarily powerful in those days, and many of the claims which it raised were such that it was hard for a strong king to accept them. We have seen how Anselm, the best archbishop since the Conquest, quarrelled not only with a wicked king like William II., but also with a fairly good king like Henry I. Henry II. was therefore very anxious to make his best friend head of the English Church.

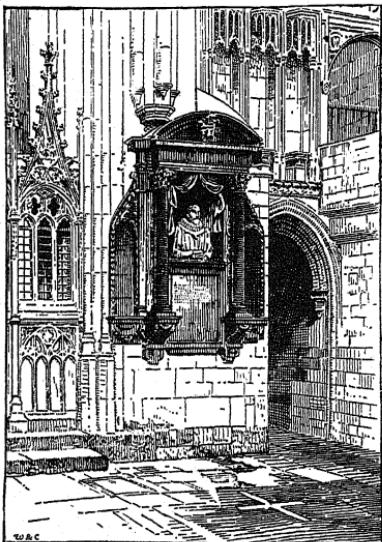
10. Becket took a very serious view of his new office. He changed his way of life, became very strict and austere, and was as stiff as Anselm himself in upholding all the rights and liberties of the Church. The consequence was that a very fierce quarrel broke out between Henry and Thomas in 1164. The chief cause of this was the question of how clergymen who had broken the law should be tried

The Constitutions of Clarendon and the Quarrel of Henry and Becket.

for their offences. The Church had law courts of its own, and the custom had been since the Norman Conquest for the clergy to be tried in these courts only. But the Church courts could not hang a man, and as the judges were always clergymen, they were inclined to be very merciful to brother-clergymen who had got into difficulties. Now, we must always remember that in those days there were a great many more clergymen than there are now. Nearly everybody who could read and write was made a clergyman, and expected to enjoy the privileges of the clergy. Henry II. thought that the king ought to see that at any rate clergymen who committed murders and similar crimes were properly punished. He drew up a law called the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, in which he claimed certain powers over the Church. Thomas bitterly resisted the Constitutions, and declared that Henry was attacking the liberties of the Church. This made the king very angry, and after some stormy scenes, he drove the archbishop out of the country.

11. Becket remained nearly six years in exile, but in 1170 he and the king patched up their quarrel, and the archbishop went back to Canterbury.
The murder of St. Thomas of Canterbury. No sooner was he again in England than he and the king began a new dispute. Henry fell into one of his wild rages when he heard how Thomas was again setting himself up against the king. 'Will none of the cowards,' cried he, 'who eat my bread rid me of this turbulent priest?' Four of the king's *knights*, or soldiers, took him at his word and hurried straight to Canterbury, hoping to kill the archbishop. On reaching Canterbury they had a fierce talk with Thomas, who withdrew afterwards into his cathedral. It was about dark on a December afternoon, and the monks had just sung vespers. The knights with an armed following burst into the church, crying, 'Where is the traitor'?

The archbishop scorned to hide, and came forth to meet them, saying, 'Here am I, no traitor, but archbishop and priest of God.' Thereupon the knights set upon him with their swords, and soon stretched him lifeless on the pavement. But the cowardly murderers had done the worst possible service to their king. Becket became revered as a martyr, and



The Martyrdom, Canterbury Cathedral.

(The White Cross drawn in the pavement shows the spot where Thomas Becket was murdered.)

the Pope solemnly declared him to be a saint. Men forgot his quarrelsome ness. They did not care to think how, unlike Anselm, Thomas had ever fought for the Church and the clergy rather than for truth and righteousness. His tomb or *shrine* at Canterbury became the most famous place of pilgrimage in England, and all went ill with Henry until he himself went on pilgrimage to St. Thomas's shrine, where he

was scourged with rods as a sign of his penitence. Moreover, the cause that Becket had fought for was now so strong that Henry had to yield to it. From this time until the Reformation the clergyman who committed a crime was handed over to the courts of the Church, and as a consequence rarely got the punishment that his misdeeds deserved.

12. We have seen how great was Henry's power in France, and how strong his rule in England. But

^{Henry II. as} we should also remember that he was ^{Lord of the} the first king to have real authority ^{British} over all parts of the British islands. We ^{Islands.} know that King Edgar was lord over the

Welsh and Scotch, and even over some of the Irish. But the later kings before the Conquest did not maintain this power, which at best had been little more than a name. However, the coming of the fierce and restless Normans to England led to a revival of these old claims by the Conqueror and his sons. The Nor-

^{Wales.} mans soon began to swarm over the Eng-

lish borders into Wales, which was ruled by so many petty princes that it could not unite to resist them. In Wales the Normans set up a large number of little states, and you can still see, especially in southern and eastern Wales, more Norman castles than in any other part of the British islands to show how real their rule was. Only in the mountains of Snowdon did the Welsh princes hold their own. More-

^{Scotland} over, in Scotland the marriage of Henry I. and the Scots king's daughter brought about such a close and friendly feeling between the English and Scottish courts, that the Normans were welcomed as cordially in the north as they were in the south, and before long many of the greatest Scottish nobles were Normans. Through them feudal laws were brought into Scotland, and close relations between the two realms established. One result of

this was that several kings of Scots did homage to the English king.

13. In Henry II.'s time Norman adventurers passed over into Ireland, and did there over again what they had already accomplished in Wales. They found Ireland ruled by a multitude of petty kings, and heads of *clans* or tribes, who were always quarrelling with each other. They took sides in these disputes and soon began to drive away the Irish princes from power and set up little feudal states over which they bore sway. Most of the richer parts of Ireland were thus conquered by Norman barons, while the Irish chieftains were driven from the plains to rule among the mountains and moors, whence they constantly made war against the foreign intruders. At last the Normans were so hard pressed that they called upon Henry to help them against the native Irish. In 1171, after Becket's murder, Henry himself went to Ireland, and found no one bold enough to openly resist him. He was easily acknowledged as its lord by Norman barons and Celtic clan leaders alike. But the submission of the Irish lords was in little more than in name. Henceforward the English kings were called *Lords of Ireland*, though Ireland really remained unconquered for many hundred years more. During all that time its history is made up of constant petty wars between the Norman barons and Celtic chieftains among whom the island was divided.

The Norman Conquest of Ireland.

14. Henry's last years were full of trouble. He was a kind father, but his sons were disobedient and rebellious. They joined the French king, the revolted nobles, and any other enemies that their father happened to have, and their ingratitude made the king's old age very wretched. His eldest son, *Henry*, died a rebel, but full of repentance for his misdeeds. The next, *Richard*, was ever turbulent and restless. The third,

Henry's family troubles and death.

Geoffrey, the same who had won by marriage the duchy of Brittany, died before his father. Last of all, *John*, Henry's youngest and best beloved son, joined the rebels. Henry gave up all hope on hearing this news, and in 1189 fell ill and died.

CHAPTER IX

Richard I., the Lion Heart, 1189-1199

(Married Berengaria of Navarre)

Principal Persons:

Saladin, Sultan of Egypt and Syria; Philip Augustus, King of France; the Emperor Henry VI; the Viscount of Limoges.

Principal Dates:

1189. Accession of Richard I.; the Third Crusade.
1194. Richard's second visit to England.
1199. Death of Richard I.

1. Richard I. was a fine, tall, strong man, with a fair complexion and bright yellow hair. He was a mighty warrior, and his bravery won for him the nickname of Lion Heart. He had ^{Character of} Richard I. plenty of energy, and though not so clever as his father, was shrewd and far-seeing. Though often more generous and unselfish than Henry II. in little things, he was in great matters a much worse king than his father. While Henry strove to make his kingdom better governed and more prosperous, Richard chiefly thought about winning glory for himself.

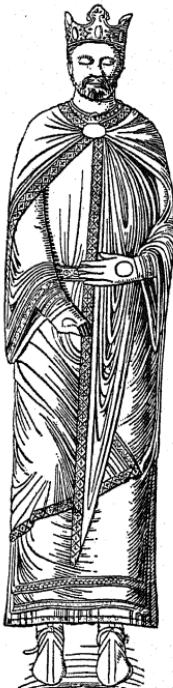
2. Brought up among the fierce nobles of his mother's land of Aquitaine, Richard knew and cared little about his island kingdom. He only twice visited England during his reign of ten years. On each occasion he came to get as much money as he could, and as soon as he had filled his pockets he hurried away again. But Richard was shrewd enough to leave England to itself. All through

England
under
Richard I.'s
rule.

his reign *Justiciars* or prime ministers, trained up in Henry II.'s court, ruled England in the name of the absent king. So long as they sent him plenty of money Richard gave them a free hand. The result showed what a great and permanent work had been accomplished by Henry II. Time had been when



Queen Berengaria.



Richard I.

a neglectful and absent king would have meant plunging all England into such trouble and confusion as had prevailed under Stephen. But there was now such a good system of governing the country that the ministers of the king were able to rule the land as strictly and sternly as any king could have done. Even without the monarch, Henry II.'s system

went on, so to say, by itself. There were not wanting men who tried to take advantage of the king's absence to gain power for themselves, but the king's justiciars were able to put down all rebellions and keep the country in peace. Their worst trouble was with the king's younger brother, John, who rebelled against Richard and did his best to stir up confusion. But John was quickly rendered powerless, and Richard generously forgave him.

3. At the moment when Richard came to the throne all Europe was roused to arms by the preaching of what was called a

The First Crusade.

a holy war fought against

the enemies of the Christian faith, and was so called because those who took part in it, the Crusaders, wore a cross sewn on their outer garment as a sign that they had undertaken the holy work. The *First Crusade* had been proclaimed in 1095 in the reign of William Rufus. Christians had long been shocked that Jerusalem and the other holy places in Palestine, where Christ had lived and suffered, were in the hands of the Mohammedans, the great enemies

of the Christian faith in the East. Things got worse when the Turks, the most brutal and cruel of the Mohammedans, became lords of Jerusalem somewhere about the time of our Norman Conquest. It was the fashion of those days for men to go on *pilgrimages*



Effigy of a Knight in the Temple Church, London, showing Armour of the End of the Twelfth Century. (From Hollis's *Monumental Effigies*.)

or pious journeys to places famous in sacred history, and no pilgrimage was thought so meritorious as the long and difficult journey to Bethlehem, where our Lord was born, and to Jerusalem, where His sepulchre or burial-place was still shown. But the Turks robbed and maltreated the Christian pilgrims, and made their presence in Palestine almost impossible. This roused up great indignation all over Europe, and led to warriors of every land banding themselves together to drive the unbeliever out of Palestine and restore Christian rule in the places sanctified by Christ's earthly presence. Thus was the First Crusade started, which succeeded so well that it expelled the Turks from Palestine and set up a Christian kingdom of Jerusalem. Duke Robert of Normandy, the Conqueror's eldest son, was one of the heroes of the First Crusade.

4. The kingdom of Jerusalem did not flourish very long, though another Crusade, called the *Second Crusade*, was sent after about fifty years, to strengthen it. At last a very brave and generous Sultan of Egypt and Syria, named *Saladin*, revived the Mohammedan power and drove the Christians out of Jerusalem. There was a great cry of horror all over Europe when it was learned that the holy

The Third city was once more in the hands of the Crusade. infidel. A new Crusade, the *Third Crusade*,

was proclaimed by the Pope in order to win back Jerusalem for the Cross. Richard himself was eager to play a prominent part in it, and after raising as much money as he could in his brief visit to England, he sailed for the East at the head of a gallant army. Every Christian nation was represented in the crusading host. Among the leaders was *Philip Augustus*, the King of France, the old ally of Richard in the days when both fought against Henry II.

5. Richard won several battles over Saladin, in which

he performed wonderful feats of valour, fighting fierce hand-to-hand fights, and marching great distances through the burning sands of Syria, clad in the heavy steel armour of the western knight. His successes gave the Christian kingdom in Palestine another hundred years of life. But with all his courage and skill he could not conquer Jerusalem, though he came within sight of its walls. But he resolutely turned away his face from the holy city, saying that if he were not able to enter its gates as conqueror, he was not worthy to cast his eyes upon it. He made a truce with Saladin by which Christian pilgrims were allowed to go to Jerusalem, and took ship for home.

Richard I.
and the
Third
Crusade.

6. The disputes of the Crusaders had done much to damage the crusading cause. Philip of France quarrelled fiercely with Richard and hurried back to France, where, in secret alliance with John, he plundered and invaded Richard's continental dominions. The ill-will of the French king now prevented Richard from going home by the most direct way through France, so he sailed up the Adriatic and thence crossed over the Alps to Germany. He was soon, however, stopped and shut up in prison by a German nobleman who had quarrelled with him in Palestine, and who handed him over to the Emperor *Henry VI.* Henry kept Richard in prison until an enormous sum of money was raised in England and paid over as the king's ransom. Then Richard was set free, and after more than five years' absence again appeared in England in 1194.

Richard's
captivity in
Germany.

7. Richard was full of wrath with the French king, and resolved to make Philip suffer for his treacherous conduct. After raising as much money as he could he crossed over to France, and never came back to England. He spent the rest of his life in fighting the French

Richard's
wars against
France, and
death.

king, but he gained no very great successes against him. At last he met his end in a petty quarrel with one of his own vassals, the *Viscount of Limoges*, who had discovered a hidden treasure and refused to share it with the king. Richard at once besieged the viscount in his castle of *Châlus*, but was slain by an arrow shot from the castle wall. He was not a good king, but his brother and successor reigned so badly that men soon had cause to mourn for Richard the Lion Heart.

CHAPTER X.

John Lackland, 1199-1216 (Married Isabella of Angoulême)

Principal Persons:

Arthur of Brittany; Philip Augustus, King of France, and his son Louis, afterwards Louis VIII.; Pope Innocent III.; Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury; Pandulf, Envoy of Innocent III.

Principal Dates:

- 1199. Accession of John.
- 1204. Loss of Normandy.
- 1213. John becomes the Pope's vassal.
- 1215. Magna Carta granted.
- 1216. Invasion of Louis of France, and death of John.

1. The nearest heir to Richard I. was *Arthur of Brittany*, son of Geoffrey, the third son of Henry II. But Arthur was a boy, and the barons preferred to be ruled by a grown man. Accordingly Arthur's claims were passed over, and John, Henry II.'s youngest son, became King John. He was as wicked a man as William Rufus, as cruel, as immoral, and as cunning. But he was a far worse ruler than the strong and capable Red King. He was cowardly, lazy, and fickle. He thought little of the real interest even of the crown, as compared with the indulgence of the whim of the moment. For his people he cared nothing at all. His self-will and pride broke down that mighty

Accession
and char-
acter of
John.

Angevin Empire that had outlived even the neglect of his brother. His short reign is nothing but a catalogue of disasters. He lost Normandy and Anjou. He submitted humbly to the will of the Pope. He ruled so brutally over his subjects that they were forced to unite against him, and when he was cut off by death he had all but lost his throne.

2. In the early years of his reign, John ruled like Richard and Henry II. over all western France. His nephew, Arthur, was a more dangerous rival in France than in England, but John soon shut him up in a castle and before long put him to death. But other enemies arose to revenge Arthur. Before this, John had treated his French subjects so badly that they complained of his acts to Philip of France, his overlord. Up to his accession, Philip had been John's closest friend, but he now became his bitter enemy. He issued his judgment that John had forfeited his possessions in France by reason of his tyrannous deeds. In 1204 a French army swooped down upon Normandy and overran it. John did nothing to defend the inheritance of his ancestors, which Philip now annexed to France. Anjou, the cradle of his house, was conquered by Philip with equal ease. Before the end of the reign nothing remained of the Angevin dominions in France save Gascony, the southern part of Queen Eleanor's Aquitanian inheritance.



King John.

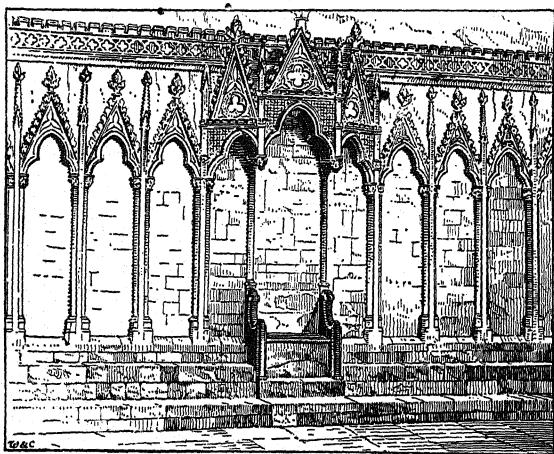
3. The loss of his continental dominions, though very discreditable to John, was in the long-run a gain to England. As long as the Norman nobles continued to hold estates in France as well as England, they could not easily become good Englishmen. But Philip's conquest of Normandy and Anjou forced them to decide between abandoning their French or their English lands, since they could not serve both King John and King Philip. Those who preferred to remain in England were henceforth cut off from the Continent. Though they long continued to follow French ways and talk the French tongue, they soon showed that they were as true Englishmen as those who had sprung from Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Thus the loss of Normandy completed that mixing together of Norman and English which, as we have seen, had already made great progress in the days of Henry II.

Results of their loss.

4. No sooner had John been beaten by the French king than he plunged into a quarrel with the Church. In 1205 the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and there was a dispute as to who should be his successor. According to Church law, the *chapter* of the cathedral, that is, the body of clergy serving in Christ Church, Canterbury, had the right to elect the archbishop. Now, the chapter of Canterbury, like that of many other English cathedrals since Dunstan's time, consisted of a number of monks, whose head was called the prior. It had long been felt that it was not wise to permit the monks of Canterbury to choose freely the head of the whole English Church. The result of this feeling was that the kings had always had a large share in deciding to whom the great office was to fall. But John could not agree with the monks of Christ Church on this occasion, and both king and monks did their best to get the man of their choice made archbishop.

Disputed election of Canterbury.

5. In all cases of disputed ecclesiastical elections there was a final court of appeal in the Pope's court at Rome. Now the Pope in John's days was John's quarrel with *Innocent III.*, one of the strongest, wisest, best, and most masterful of the Popes. On the case coming before him, Innocent set aside the choice both of the king and the monks, and himself persuaded some of the monks who had been sent to



The Prior's Seat, Chapter House, Canterbury, where the Elections of the Archbishops were made.

Rome to elect as their archbishop *Stephen Langton*, a very wise, learned, and high-minded Englishman, then living at Rome, as a *cardinal* of the Roman Church. It ought not to be forgotten that Langton, the Pope's nominee, was a much better man for the post than either the candidate of the king or that of the monks. But the Pope was over-eager to increase the power of the Church, and kings were becoming afraid of the constant fresh claims which the Roman Church was making to exercise jurisdiction within their kingdoms.

There was nothing strange therefore in John refusing to accept the Pope's choice. It was not, however, that John was influenced by high reasons of state, such as had inspired Henry I. to resist Anselm, and Henry II. to oppose Becket. He wanted to give the archbishopric to one of his unworthy servants, and feared, like Rufus in the case of Anselm, the advice and counsel of so good a man as Langton. Anyhow, John would not give way to the Pope, and, as the Pope would not yield to the king, a fierce conflict broke out between them.

6. After the contest had lasted some years, Innocent proclaimed what was called an *Interdict* over all England. It was one of the severest punishments which the Church could impose upon a country. By it all public worship was forbidden. The churches and churchyards were shut up. No bell was tolled. The dead were buried in unhallowed land without prayer or praise. The sacraments were refused save to the dying and to the new-born child, and in these cases were administered with as little pomp as was possible. It seemed as if God's favour were withdrawn from the land under interdict, and in that age of faith the loss of all the consolations of the Church was as grievous a thing as could be. But though the English groaned under their sorrow, the godless John was quite careless about the interdict. He exerted himself, however, to drive from the country such priests and bishops as obeyed the Pope's orders, and showed high favour to those clergy who ignored the interdict and went on with their services as before.

7. A year passed by and John still refused to yield. At last in 1209 Innocent declared John *ex-communicate*, that is, cut off from all the services and sacraments of the Church. In those days the man excommunicated was shunned by

The
Interdict.

Excom-
muni-
cation
of John.

his fellows as an unclean person. But John laughed at excommunication as he had done at the interdict. Finally, Innocent fell back on a still more terrible weapon. He declared that John had forfeited his throne for his disobedience to the Church, and called on Philip of France to invade England, and carry out the sentence of the Roman court. Philip was already the close ally of the Pope, and was delighted to get a good excuse for conquering his rival's dominions. He prepared to execute Innocent's judgment, and the friends of the Pope in England were likely to welcome him as a deliverer.

8. Seeing that he could no longer safely oppose the Pope, John gave up the struggle. He agreed to accept

John be-
comes the
Pope's
vassal.

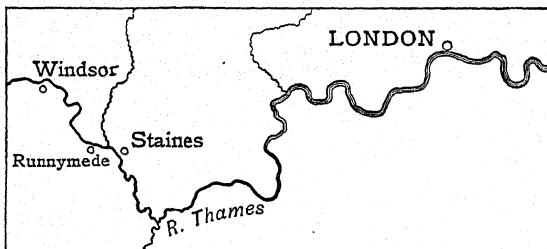
Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, but Innocent required a more complete submission. In despair, John yielded to Innocent's demands.

In 1213, at Dover, he surrendered his crown and kingdom to *Pandulf*, the Pope's envoy. He only received it back when he had promised to be the Pope's vassal. He took the feudal oaths of homage and fidelity to Innocent as to his overlord, and agreed to pay a tribute of a thousand marks a year to the Roman see. By this surrender John gave the Pope political as well as ecclesiastical rights over England. The land which its kings had hitherto ruled without a master was henceforth to depend upon the Pope in the same way that Gascony depended on France or Wales on England. But John cared nothing for the disgrace of his surrender. He was quite satisfied to have avoided the French invasion, and was glad henceforth to have the Pope on his side.

9. During these years of trouble John had been reigning very badly. From the Norman Conquest up to this time the king had trusted to be supported by the people whenever he had a quarrel with his

barons. But now the people began to fall away from John and to follow the barons in attacking the common tyrant. This was the easier, since the barons, after the loss of Normandy, had become more than half Englishmen. Quarrel between John and his barons.

Archbishop Langton wisely strove to bring together the different classes of the people, and within a very short time of John's submission to the Pope, barons and knights, townsmen and countrymen, all joined together to break down the tyranny of the king. In 1215 John saw that he could resist no longer, and submitted as abjectly to his people as he had formerly

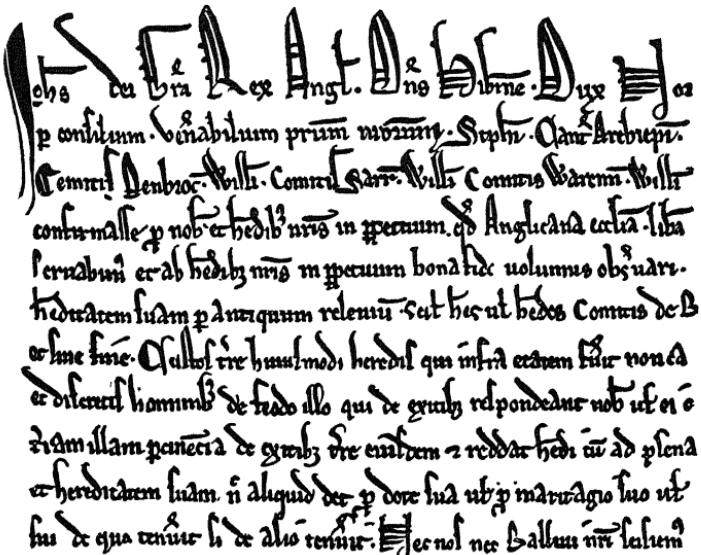


Walker & Cockerell sc.

yielded like a coward to the Pope. He met the leaders of the barons on a meadow by the banks of the Thames, between Windsor and Staines, called *Runnymede*. There he sealed the terms of submission which the barons had drawn up for him.

10. This document was called *Magna Carta*, or the *Great Charter*, and is justly famous as the beginning of English liberty. Up to now the Norman kings had ruled over England like despots. But in the Great Charter John promised that henceforth the land should be ruled in a different way. The barons wrest Magna Carta from John. He agreed that every Englishman's rights should be respected. The Church was to enjoy its full liberties and choose its own bishops freely. The barons were not to be oppressed by

excessive feudal dues. The towns were to enjoy freedom of trade. The harsh forest laws were to be made lighter. No fresh taxes or aids were to be raised without the consent of the great council of barons. Justice was to be denied to no man, and no free man was to be imprisoned or driven beyond sea save



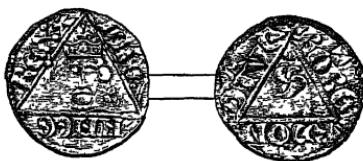
A Facsimile of a Portion of Magna Carta.

(Showing the left-hand side of the opening lines) (Scale of Original.)

according to law. With the Great Charter begins that English constitution which we still enjoy.

11. John had no intention of keeping his word. He accepted the Charter to gain time, but he told the Pope what he had done, and persuaded Innocent with his barons, who call in Louis of France. to declare the Charter invalid since it had been won by force, and was against the rights of the Pope as overlord. As soon as he could John repudiated his promise. He raised an army of bloodthirsty foreign soldiers, with whose aid

he went to war against his barons. For once John showed energy and activity. Before long he pressed the barons so hard that they were forced to call in foreign aid. They asked Louis, the eldest son of Philip of France, to come over and be their king, and Louis at once accepted their offer. But even with French help the barons had still a hard task before them. In 1216, however, John suddenly died in the midst of the struggle, cut off, it was said, through gorging himself with peaches and new ale. He had only reigned sixteen years, yet he had failed in everything that he had attempted. It was no wonder that men called him in shame John Lackland. With him the Norman despotism, which had done good work in making England peaceable and united, and was now no longer needed, came to a shameful end.



A Silver Penny of John, struck at Dublin.

BOOK III

THE LATER PLANTAGENETS, 1216-1399

CHAPTER XI

Henry III. of Winchester, 1216-1272

(Married Eleanor of Provence)

Principal Persons :

Louis of France, William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke; Hubert de Burgh, Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester; Eleanor, Countess of Leicester, the Lord Edward, the King's son.

Principal Dates :

- 1216. Accession of Henry III.
- 1217. Battle of Lincoln.
- 1232. Fall of Hubert de Burgh.
- 1258. Provisions of Oxford.
- 1264. Battle of Lewes.
- 1265. Montfort's Parliament and Battle of Evesham.
- 1272 Death of Henry III.

1. John's eldest son was only nine years old at his father's death; but his friends at once crowned him King Henry III. The barons who had called in Louis of France refused to recognise the little king, and the civil war went on for some time longer. It was soon found, however, that Henry's side grew stronger, while Louis' supporters gradually fell away from him. The innocent boy-king had no share in the crimes of his father. His friends took care to show that they had little sympathy with John's policy. They issued the

The
expulsion
of Louis of
France.

Great Charter once more as the free-will grant of the new monarch. This wise act took away any good reason for opposing Henry's rule. The barons had called in Louis to uphold the Charter against John, and now John's son himself was on the side of the Charter. There was not in those days the intense feeling of dislike for Frenchmen that grew up later in England, and most of the upper classes in England still talked French. But they were beginning to feel like Englishmen, and felt sorry that the day might come when England would be ruled by the King of France. So all the wisest and best men in England gradually went over to Henry's side. Among his chief supporters were Archbishop Stephen Langton and *William Marshall*, Earl of Pembroke, the noblest of the English barons. The Pope's *legate* or representative in England was also strongly for the little king, and the Pope himself had now given up his objections to the Great Charter. The result was that Louis' cause began to lose ground. In 1217 he was beaten at the *Battle of Lincoln*, and soon after he left England.

2. William Marshall now restored peace and prosperity to the land, which had suffered so severely from the horrors of civil war. But he was an old man, and died in 1219. However, the Justiciar, *Hubert de Burgh*, now stepped into his place. He governed England until 1232, and succeeded in bringing back the system of strong rule that had prevailed under Henry II. The greedy foreigners, who



Henry III.

The rule of
William
Marshall
and Hubert
de Burgh.

had been the chief supporters of John, were forced to give up their lands and castles. The worst of them were driven away from England.

3. Henry III. was pious and gentle, a good husband and father, and a faithful friend. He was the first Character king after the Conquest who reverenced and policy of English saints, and the first who called Henry III. his children by old-fashioned English names, such as Edward and Edmund, instead of the French names, like William, Henry, and Richard, that had so long been exclusively used. He loved to build fair churches after the new pointed or *Gothic* style, which had just come over from France into England, and was now used instead of the heavier round-arched Norman fashion of building. He was a great admirer of Edward the Confessor, after whom he named his eldest son, and in whose honour he began to rebuild Westminster Abbey, pulling down the noble church which Edward himself had set up, and putting in its place the Westminster Abbey which still exists. This is one of the finest of our Gothic churches, with its lofty nave, vaulted roof of stone propped up by flying buttresses, and its beautifully carved and ornamented north front. It is not, perhaps, so solemn and grand as the best Norman churches, but it is far lighter, better proportioned, and more artistic.

4. Henry, though a fairly good man, was a weak king, having many of the faults of Edward the Henry III.'s Confessor, as well as most of his virtues. foreign favourites. He was too jealous to let his ministers govern freely in his name, and on growing up to manhood he was ungrateful enough to drive away from power the faithful Hubert de Burgh. But Henry was not hard-working or vigorous enough to be himself the real ruler of England. He trusted too much to favourites, and especially to foreign favourites, who knew nothing of England and English ways. He gave

great posts in England to the uncles and other kinsfolk of his wife, *Eleanor of Provence*. He also favoured unduly his half brothers and sisters, the children of his mother, John's queen, by her second marriage with a great baron of central France. Nobly-born adventurers flocked from abroad to the court of the good-natured, lavish English king. Among these was a clever young Frenchman, *Simon of Montfort*, who married Henry's sister *Eleanor*, and was recognised as Earl of Leicester.

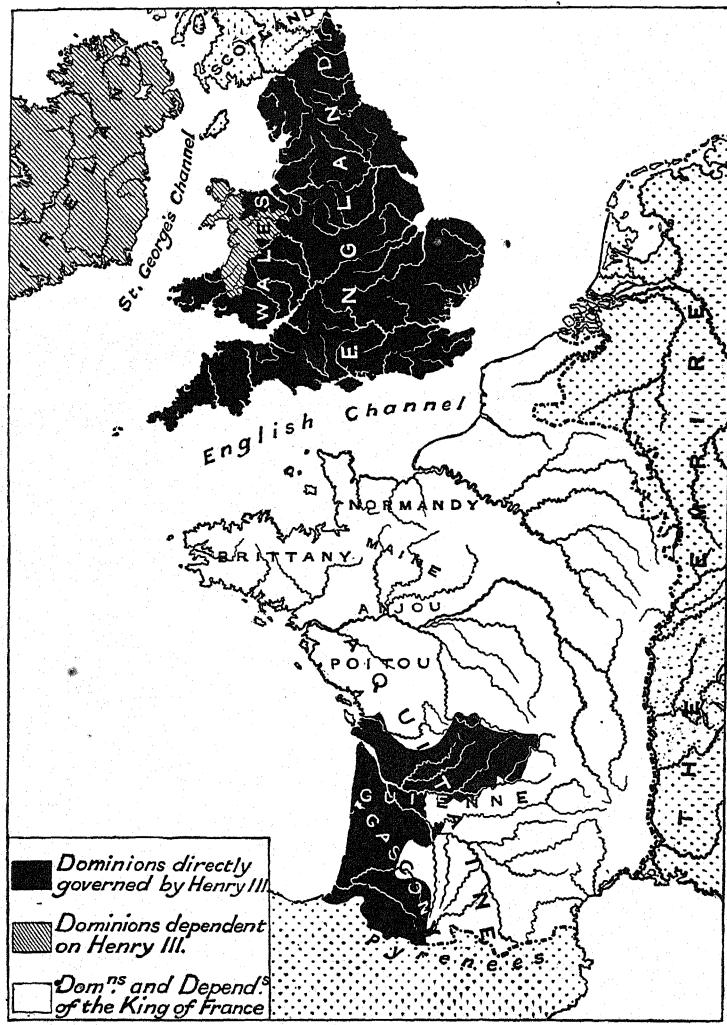
5. Neither Henry nor his foreign friends knew how to govern England. The promises made that the king would rule according to the Great Charter were not kept. Time after time the barons joined together and forced Henry to renew his pledges. The king was always willing to do this, especially if he could get money by it, but he was too feeble to know how to keep his word. The consequence was that the barons gradually became very angry with him. They were no longer, like their forefathers, content to let the king govern England for them. During Henry's childhood they had practically ruled England themselves, and they were not disposed to let the foreigners take their places as the king's advisers. They saw that the country was badly governed. The king collected plenty of taxes, but he wasted his revenues on his foreign friends, and did not keep good order. Moreover, being a great friend of the Pope's, he allowed the Pope's legates and agents to extort money from the English clergy and laity and send it to Rome. It now became a common custom for the Popes to appoint foreigners to English bishoprics and other high posts in the Church. And many of these foreigners cared nothing for their English flocks, but looked upon their position as giving them large revenues without requiring any corresponding work from them.

Henry III.'s
misrule.

6. There was much grumbling against Henry and the foreigners, and many councils of barons were held to discuss what was to be done. ^{Growth of baronial opposition.} These councils, which in Norman times had taken the place of the old English *Witenagemot*, were now beginning to be called *Parliaments*, that is, meetings for talking and discussion. But the Parliament of these days did not represent the whole people. Like the ancient *Witenagemot* or our modern House of Lords, it consisted only of the great men—the earls and barons, the heads of the laity, and the bishops and abbots, the chiefs of the clergy. During Henry's minority these councils had grown accustomed to exercise power; and the Great Charter had said that the king could raise no new taxes without their consent. Henry's constant demands for money gave the baronial Parliament its chance, and in Simon of Montfort, the king's brother-in-law, it found a capable leader.

7. Earl Simon had come to England as a foreigner to seek his fortune, and his marriage closely connected him with the king. But he was ^{The Provisions of Oxford.} so much wiser than Henry that he soon grew disgusted with his brother-in-law's foolish ways and quarrelled with him. Simon was an ambitious, hot-tempered, violent man, but he loved the people, and soon proved a better patriot than the English-born barons themselves. Under his lead a Parliament met at Oxford in 1258, which the king's friends called the *Mad Parliament*. But the barons of this Parliament knew very well what they were about. They drew up a new system of government called the *Provisions of Oxford*. By these laws all the foreigners were banished from England, and the government taken away from the king and given to a committee of fifteen barons.

8. Henry was forced to submit, and for some years



THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN 1259.

WALKER & COCKERELL, DEL.

the *Fifteen* ruled in his name. But they governed in such a selfish and narrow way that The Barons' many people began to complain loudly. Wars.

Simon did what he could, but some of the nobles grew jealous of his bold and overbearing policy. The result was a division among the barons that gave Henry a chance of winning back power. The king himself was not clever enough to make the most of his opportunities, but his eldest son, the Lord Edward, was now a grown man, and did much to supply his father's weakness. At last open hostilities broke out between the king and the barons. These were called the *Barons' Wars*. It showed how much the king had gained that he was able to fight at all. But he was not yet able to wage war successfully. The barons now united again, and Montfort proved to be as good a general as he had been a statesman. In 1264 he won a complete victory over the king and his son at *Lewes* in Sussex. Henry and Edward were both taken prisoners, and the government of England again fell to the barons.

9. Montfort was now in a much better position than in the early years of the struggle. His plan had long been to take the people into partnership with him, and he was at length able to carry out his wishes. In 1265 he summoned a Parliament, which, unlike the Parliament of 1258, was no mere council of

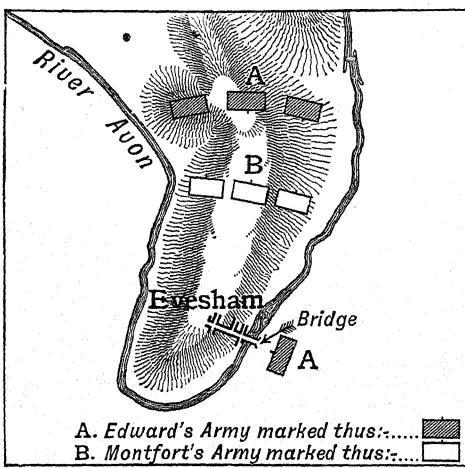
The barons. Along with the barons and bishops of 1265. he called upon every shire, city, and borough to send two representatives to join with the nobles and prelates. This action of his has made the Parliament of 1265 very famous in our history. It has been called the *first House of Commons*, and Montfort has been named the *creator of the House of Commons*. But we should not forget that Montfort's policy here was not altogether a sudden change. For fifty years it had been the custom

for the king to call together representatives of the shire, or, as they were called, *knights of the shire*, and to take their advice or listen to their complaints. And when the king had wanted to get advice on trading matters, he had already more than once summoned in the same way representatives of the different cities and boroughs. The new thing now was that Montfort joined both the shire and the borough representatives in a single gathering. Moreover, he did not call upon this council to deal with small local matters, or to discuss how unimportant things should be done. He tried to find out from it what the people at large really thought as to how the government of the country should be carried on. The result was that, ever since this period, the Commons as well as the Lords had something to say in all high questions of State. As Magna Carta had declared, the king's power was to be limited. It was, however, to be limited, not only by the barons and bishops, but by the lesser landholders, the men of business, and the smaller people as well.

10. Earl Simon's rule did not last very long. With all his greatness he was so fierce and overbearing that it was hard for any one to work very long with him. Before 1265 was over he was again quarrelling with many of the barons, and these disputes gave the king and his son another chance. Edward escaped from prison and joined the lords who were discontented with Montfort. Before long they had raised a large number of soldiers, and were marching triumphantly through the Severn valley from the west to the Midlands. Earl Simon was with his army at *Evesham* on the Avon. This town is situated on a peninsula formed by a loop of the river. Edward, with the main body of his troops, cleverly took possession of the isthmus, while another part of his army broke down the bridge which communicated between

The Battle
of Evesham

Evesham and the other bank. Montfort saw that his retreat was cut off. 'Command your souls to God,' he cried to his soldiers, 'for our bodies are the Lord Edward's.' The strife then began, and Montfort's troops, though fighting bravely, were soon over-powered. Montfort himself died on the field of battle. The poor worshipped him as a saint and a martyr, for



The Battle of Evesham.

they felt sure that he had loved them, and had done his best for them.

11. Edward now restored his father to liberty and the throne. The rest of the old king's reign was as peaceful as the middle part of it had been of Edward, stormy. But Edward was now the real ruler of England, and he was wise enough to govern more according to the ideas of Earl Simon than according to the former fashion of his father. Before long things got so quiet that Edward was able to leave England and go on a crusade against the Mohammedans. He was still

away in the East when, in 1272, Henry III. ended his long reign. During his lifetime the old Norman despotism had faded slowly into the free, popular monarchy of the real conqueror of Earl Simon, who now became King Edward I.

CHAPTER XII

Edward I., 1272-1307

(Married (1) Eleonor of Castile; (2) Margaret of France)

Principal Persons :

Llywelyn, Prince of Wales; Alexander III., King of Scots; Margaret of Norway; John Balliol, King of Scots; Robert Bruce, the Claimant, and Robert Bruce, his grandson, King of Scots, Sir William Wallace.

Principal Dates :

- 1272. Accession of Edward I.
- 1282. Conquest of North Wales.
- 1292. John Balliol made King of Scots.
- 1295. The Model Parliament.
- 1296. First Conquest of Scotland.
- 1297. The Confirmation of the Charters.
- 1298. Battle of Falkirk.
- 1306. Rising of Robert Bruce.
- 1307. Death of Edward I.

1 Edward I. was the first king after the Conquest to have an English name and an English heart. Character of Edward I. He was clever enough to profit by the hard teaching which he had received during the Barons' Wars. He loved power too well to part with it willingly. But he saw that if he wished to be a successful ruler, he must make his policy popular. Thus, though every inch a king, Edward strove to carry on the great idea of Earl Simon's of taking the people into a sort of partnership with him. The result was that the people trusted and followed him. He found that he could thus get

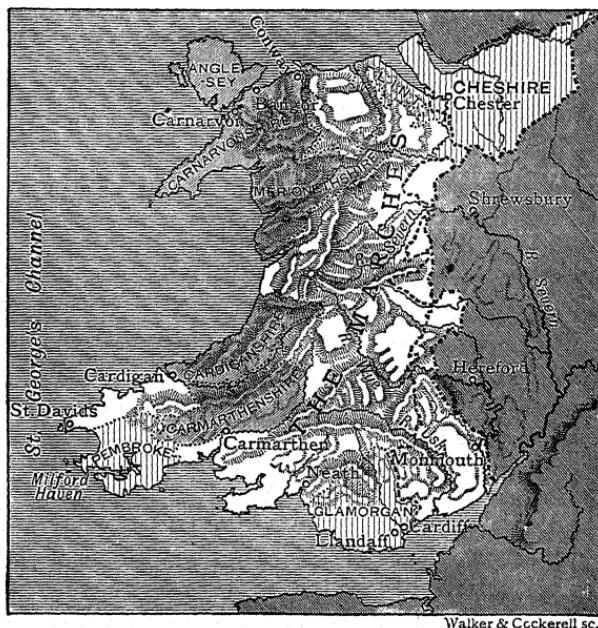
more of his own way than by always wrangling with his subjects. A tall, fine, powerful man, a magnificent swordsman and sportsman, a strenuous and brave general, and a loyal and honourable gentleman, he drew people to his side by his wisdom, his popularity, and his graciousness. He was proud of his straightforwardness, and boasted that he always kept his word. He had two chief faults. One was his hot temper, which sometimes made him hard and almost cruel. The other was a curious narrowness of mind, which made him sometimes look at the letter rather than the spirit of his promises. He never told lies, like his father ; but he did not mind twisting the plain meaning of what he said, provided that he never actually violated his word. These defects, together with an ambition that led him to undertake more than he was able to carry out, show us why he sometimes failed. But with all his faults, Edward well deserves the title, which has been given him, of the *Greatest of the Plantagenets.*

2. Edward was proclaimed king in his absence. Though nearly two years passed before he got back to England, the calm which had endured since the end of the Barons' Wars was never broken. But trouble was already brewing in one quarter. *Llywelyn*, Prince of Wales, refused to perform the homage due from him to the new king. He was the descendant of those lords of Snowdon who had in earlier days maintained their freedom against the Norman barons who had conquered so much of southern and eastern Wales. But as time went on the Norman power had waned. Though Norman nobles called *Lords Marcher* still ruled over those parts of the land called the *March of Wales*, Llywelyn was master of all the north of Wales, and of some of the south, and his claim to be Prince of all Wales had been acknowledged by the English. He now

1

The conquest
of the Prin-
cipality of
Wales.

rashly strove to make himself altogether independent, but Edward soon proved too strong for him. On two occasions Edward led an army into the mountains of Snowdon. The first expedition crushed Llywelyn's power. The second, in 1282, led to his death in battle,



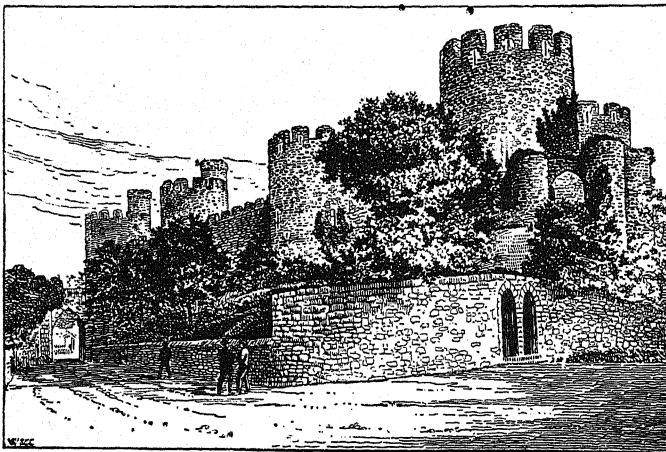
Walker & Cockerell sc.

- The Principality
- The Palatine counties
- The smaller marcher lordships
- English shire ground
- Modern boundary between England & Wales

Wales and the Marches between the Conquest of Edward I.
and the Union under Henry VIII.

and the conquest of all his lands. Thus triumphant over all Wales, Edward allowed the Lords Marcher to continue their rule in the March of Wales, but annexed the *Principality*, that is, Llywelyn's dominions, to the crown. He divided the *Principality* into five counties, like the shires of England, and added another new

county, Flintshire, to the Earldom of Chester, which had previously fallen, like the Principality, into the king's hands. In all his acts Edward strove to deal fairly with the Welsh, though he did not understand them well enough to respect their feelings. However, after a time Wales settled down peaceably. To secure his conquest Edward built towns and castles in Wales, and filled them with English traders and soldiers. You can still

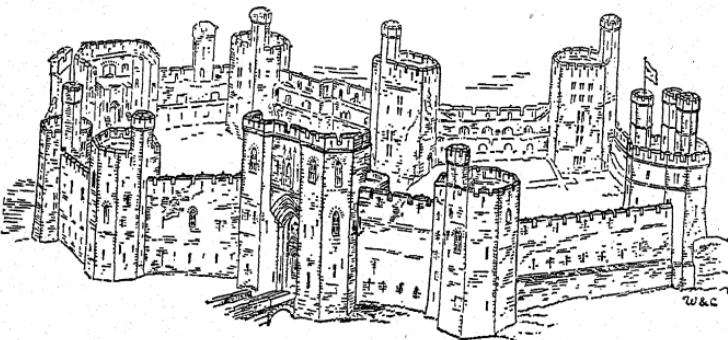


Conway Castle.

see at Conway the walls and castle erected with this object by Edward. In one of Edward's castles, at Carnarvon, his son, the future Edward II., was now born, though the grand castle, whose ruins we can still admire, was then only just beginning to arise. Many years later the young Edward was made Prince of Wales by his father. After this it gradually became the fashion to create the king's eldest son Prince of Wales, and that custom has lasted down to our own days.

3. A few years after his conquest of Wales, Edward

had a chance of trying to carry out a similar attempt in Scotland. Like Wales, Scotland had become stronger and freer than in Norman times. But while in Wales Welshman and Englishman still kept apart, in Scotland the different races inhabiting the country were getting more closely drawn together. The original Scots were, like the modern Highlanders, Celts, and talked a language very like Irish. But they had lived north of the Clyde and the Forth. Not long before the Norman Conquest the Scottish kings had acquired the northern part of the old English kingdom of Northumbria. This was called *Lothian*, and ran from the



Carnarvon Castle.

(From Clarke's *Military Architecture of the Middle Ages*.)

Forth to the Tweed. Also the northern part of the old kingdom of the Strathclyde Welsh, the lands between the Clyde and the Solway, fell under the Scots kings' rule. By this time the Welsh of the south-west, the Norman nobles, who had settled all over the land, and the English-speaking dwellers in Lothian were now sufficiently united with the Celts of the North for all to call themselves Scots. Thus the English, Welsh, and Normans in the north became the Lowland Scots of later history, speaking a form of the English language which was now beginning to be called the Lowland

Scotland
up to the
death of
Alex-
ander III.

Scots tongue. The original Scots were henceforth called the *Highlanders*, and their language more often *Gaelic* than Scots. Both Highlanders and Lowlanders were ruled by one king, and so long as the kings* were powerful and wise, the country grew in wealth and civilisation.

4. Since Henry II.'s time England and Scotland had been generally on good terms, and the royal houses had more than once been joined together by marriage. But these happy days were now ended. In 1286 *Alexander III.*, King of Scots, met his death by an accident. Three years later (1289), his granddaughter and successor, *Margaret of Norway*, died before she so much as visited Scotland. The Scottish Succession. Her death left none but distant kinsmen to claim the crown. Each of the several rivals had his following. It seemed as if civil war could alone decide who was to be the next king.

5. The Scots resolved to avoid a long struggle by asking Edward to decide which of the claimants had the best right to the throne. Edward agreed to undertake this task. He, however, required that all the Scottish barons and every claimant to the throne should take oaths of fealty to him as their overlord before he began to examine the question. Unless this condition were fulfilled he refused to act. The Scots appeal to Edward.

6. The Scots were much alarmed at Edward's request. In former days there had been many occasions on which the kings of Scots had recognised the English king as their overlord. But for a hundred years there had been no clear case of their doing this. It is true that every Scottish king had taken oaths to be faithful to the English king. But the kings of Scots had also held large estates in England, and it was not always clear whether they had done homage for Edward acknowledged by the Scots as their overlord.

their English lands or for their kingdom. As Scotland grew stronger and richer the Scots became more unwilling to acknowledge a foreign king as their superior. But however much the Scots disliked Edward's claim, they did not hesitate very long. They felt that, if Edward did not settle the question of the succession, Scotland would fall into a terrible state of confusion. Accordingly Edward was recognised as overlord of Scotland. When each of the claimants had taken oaths of fealty to him, he appointed the judges who were to determine the great suit.

7. The trial took place at Berwick-on-Tweed in 1292. The two chief claimants were *John Balliol* and *Robert Bruce*. After careful and impartial examination of the case, Edward decided that John Balliol was the rightful heir of Alexander III. Accordingly Balliol did homage to Edward, and was at once crowned King of Scots. All Scotland gladly accepted him as king, and it looked as if the dispute were peacefully settled.

8. Very soon troubles broke out between Edward and the Scots. In the old days the overlordship of England over Scotland had signified very little. But to Edward it now meant a great deal. He thought that the Scots ought to recognise his power in all the ways in which he himself as Duke of Aquitaine recognised the power of the King of France. Now it was the custom in Edward's French dominions that when people went to law with each other, the losers in the suit, if they were not satisfied with the decision, went to the court of the King of France and got him to try the case over again. This was called *appealing* to the court of the overlord. Edward thought it was only right that Scotsmen should have the same right of appeal from the Scottish law courts to those of the English king. Very soon

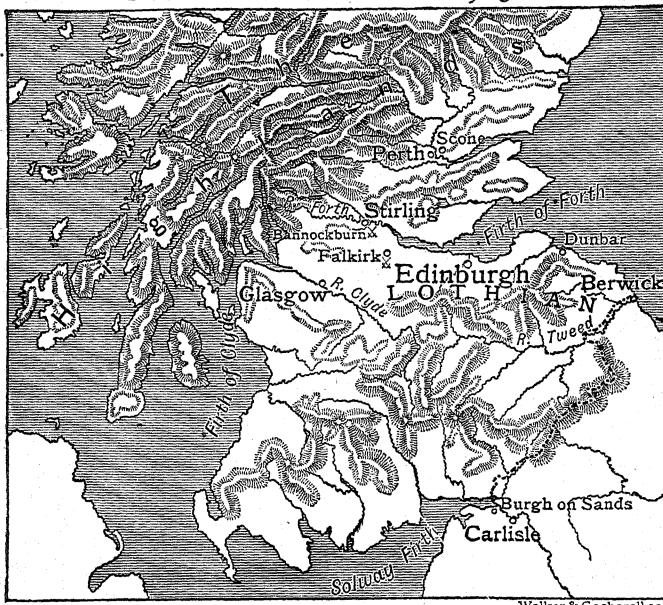
Edward makes John Balliol King of Scots.

The question of appeals.

Scots, who were beaten in their lawsuits, called upon Edward to hear their case over again, and he gladly agreed to do so. But King John declared that he had never promised to allow any such power to Edward, and refused to permit Scots to appeal to English courts.

9. Edward looked upon John's action as rebellion,

SOUTHERN SCOTLAND 1289-1328.



Walker & Cockerell sc.

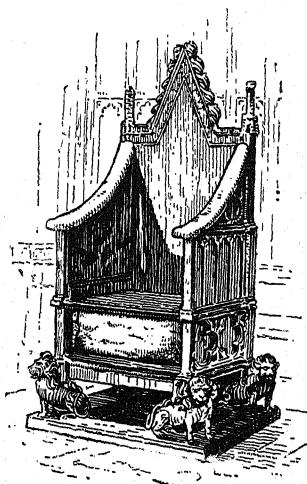
and in 1296 led an army into Scotland to punish his disobedient vassal. King John surrendered ^{Edward's} after a very poor resistance, and Edward ^{first conquest} of Scotland. deprived him of his throne. The English king now treated Scotland just as he had treated Wales after the death of Llywelyn. He declared it annexed to his dominions, and appointed English nobles to rule the Scots in his name. As a sign

of his triumph he took from Scotland to England an ancient stone upon which the Scottish kings had always sat when they were crowned at *Scone*, near Perth. This stone, which it was believed was the same as that which Jacob used as a pillow when he saw a vision of angels, never got back to Scotland. It was built up in the new coronation chair of the English kings, which Edward I. now caused to be made. You can still see his stone and chair at Westminster Abbey. Ever since Edward's time they have been used for the crowning of English kings, but since the reign of James I. the English kings have also been kings of Scots. Thus the stone has again been employed for its ancient purpose.

10. Though Edward strove to rule Scotland well, many of those who governed in his name were hard rising.

Moreover, the Scots hated the English rule even when it was fair and just. They soon rose in revolt under the leadership of a brave and fierce knight named *Sir William Wallace*.

Before long Wallace drove the English out of Scotland, and cruelly plundered and devastated the English border. In 1298 Edward once more led an army into Scotland, and fought against Wallace the *Battle of Falkirk*. The English knights strove to win the day by a cavalry charge. Wallace's soldiers were nearly all on foot, and stood together in close order, protected by a wall of pikes from the fierce



Coronation Chair,
Westminster Abbey.

rush of the mail-clad English host. After a long struggle the English won a complete victory. Wallace fled from the field, and henceforth had all he could do to keep himself out of Edward's hands. English rule was restored over Scotland, and Edward drew up a wise plan for its government, by which the Scots were to send representatives to the English Parliament. Years after the battle of Falkirk, Wallace was caught by Edward. In 1305 he was taken to London and beheaded as a traitor. The English looked upon Wallace as a robber and murderer, and dealt very harshly with him. But the Scots almost worshipped him as their national hero. Before long poets wandered through the land singing of the great deeds which he had done in upholding Scottish independence.

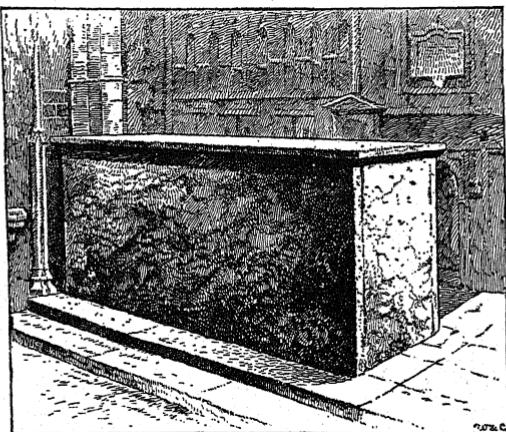
11. Scotland was now conquered a second time, but once more Edward found that he could not hold his conquest. *Robert Bruce*, grandson of the competitor for the throne against John Balliol, now put himself at the head of the Scots. For years he had been on Edward's side, but in 1306 he joined the popular party. He soon showed himself to be a shrewd statesman and a prudent general. The Scots crowned him as their king at Scone, and Edward found that he had to conquer Scotland for a third time. He was now an old man, and his health was breaking up. But in his fierce wrath, he took the field in person against Bruce. He had not yet crossed the Border when a fatal sickness ended his career. He died at *Burgh-on-Sands*, near Carlisle, ordering his son with his last breath never to rest until he had conquered Bruce and the Scots. His body was taken to Westminster for burial. There among the gorgeous carved tombs of smaller kings and princes you can see the plain slab of stone which covers the remains of the greatest of the Plantagenets. Upon it is written this inscription in Latin—'Here

Rising of
Robert
Bruce.

lies Edward I., the hammer of the Scots. Keep Troth.'

12. Edward I. must not simply be remembered as the conqueror of Wales and the would-be conqueror of Scotland. The best side of his reign is to be seen in England itself, where he ever kept good peace and passed wise laws. But perhaps the most important thing to remember about Edward in England is that he was the real *founder of our modern English Constitution*. In the worst days of his reign, when the Scots

The Model
Parliament.
The Confir-
mation of the
Charters.



Tomb of Edward I. in Westminster Abbey.

were in arms against him, he found himself beset with troubles on every side. The French king helped the Scots and tried to conquer Gascony. The Welsh rose in revolt, the barons refused to fight, and the Church began to protest against Edward's attacks on its liberties. Edward saw that he could only get over his difficulties by reviving Simon de Montfort's policy of consulting the people. Accordingly in 1295 he summoned the *first Complete or Model Parliament*

that ever met in England. In it every *Estate* or section of the people was fully represented. At first there were three Estates—the clergy, the nobles, and the commons. But before very long the higher clergy, the bishops and abbots, took their seats with the barons, while the lower clergy ceased to be represented in Parliament at all. But the 'lords spiritual and temporal,' who together became our *House of Lords*, are nowadays what corresponds to the Estates of clergy and nobles. The knights of the shires and the members elected by the cities and boroughs sat together in the *House of Commons* as the spokesmen of the Estate of the Commons. Thus our Constitution was established with king, lords, and commons, very much as it is now. And we should never forget that we owe this Constitution to Edward I. even more than to Simon de Montfort.

13. Before very long, Edward was compelled to go further than he wished in the way of concessions to his people. In 1297 he was forced once more to confirm the Great Charter, and to add to it new clauses by which he promised to raise no more fresh taxes without the consent of Parliament. With this *Confirmation of the Charters* of 1297 we may say that the long struggle for the charter which began at Runnymede came to an end. Even against a strong king like Edward I. the English people was able to enforce its will. It now secured that even the fiercest of English kings should rule according to law and not according to his own wishes. Henceforth England became a limited and constitutional monarchy, controlled by a free and representative Parliament.

CHAPTER XIV

England in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries

1. By the end of the reign of Edward I. the new England that had begun with the Norman Conquest had attained a very great amount of ^{The English nation.} prosperity. The amalgamation of English and Norman had long been complete. Though French was still a good deal spoken at court and by the upper classes, the king and the nobles were quite as English at heart as the poorest of the Commons. The whole reign of Edward I. is a sufficient proof of this.

2. The vast majority of Englishmen lived in the country, and gained their livelihood by agriculture.

^{The nobles and knights.} The chief wealth consisted in land, and the great nobles owed their importance to their being large possessors of landed estate. There were also a large number of gentlemen who held smaller estates, and are often spoken of as *knights*. Properly a knight was a fully armed and mounted soldier, who had been solemnly admitted to the use of arms by his older and tried comrades. The greatest kings and nobles were proud to be dubbed knights by some famous warrior. But every landholder of a fair-sized estate might be compelled by the king to become a knight, so that the word knight often meant simply a smaller landlord.

3. The estates of the nobles and gentry were divided

into *manors*, which were all very much of the same type. Each manor had its *lord*, who controlled all the land and exercised jurisdiction in his *manorial court* over his tenants. If the lord were a great man, he probably held many manors scattered all over England, so that he could seldom visit each one of them, but appointed a *steward* to act as his representative. In any case, there was a *bailiff*, who looked after the details of cultivation and management. There was probably a *hall*, where the lord could reside with his followers. The land was divided into two parts. First there was the *demesne*, or home-farm of the lord, which was cultivated by his bailiff for him, and then there were the little patches of land held by the villagers, many of whom were *villeins*, or serfs, who were compelled to live on their farms and work on their lord's demesne for a stated number of days.

4. There was much less variety than there is nowadays in the cultivation of the soil. The earth was ploughed by heavy ploughs drawn by several yoke of oxen. In the ploughed lands there was a regular succession of crops of corn, and then the soil lay *fallow* or empty for a year to recover its fertility. The farms of the tenants were not, as they would be now, all grouped together, but they were scattered in long narrow strips all over the manor. The corn lands were only fenced during spring and summer, and after harvest the fences were thrown down, and any tenant could pasture his cattle or his sheep upon them. There was also a large extent of *common*, or rough permanent pasture, upon which any member of the manor could turn his beasts to feed. The object of the farmer was to raise enough corn and meat to keep himself and his household during the winter. Very little produce was sent to market, and there was very little

The manor.
Life in the
country.

Manorial
agriculture.

intercourse between one district and another. Money was seldom used, and even the great nobles did not possess much of it.

5. The king and the nobles, who held many manors, lived a curiously wandering life, moving with all their

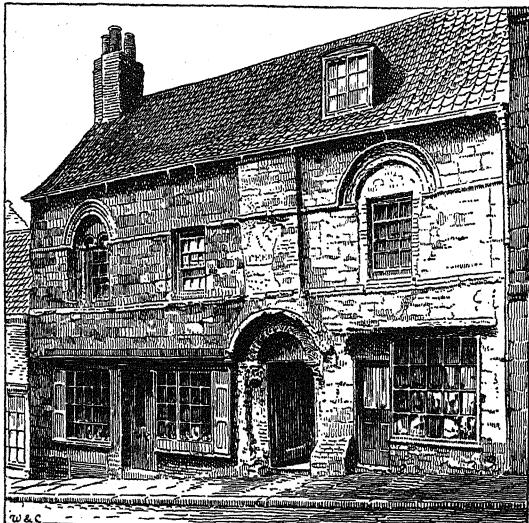
Wandering life of the king and nobles. attendants from one manor to another. When they had eaten up the produce of one estate they went on to the next, for it

was easier for men to move about than it was for produce to be carried for long distances. One result of this was that even rich men lived very uncomfortable lives. They changed their abode so often that it was never worth while to collect much furniture or make their houses really comfortable. They had plenty to eat and drink, and plenty of rough, warm clothes. But they huddled together to sleep in the same great room in which they lived and ate. There was much dirt and overcrowding, and an almost complete lack of privacy.

6. What trade there was centred in the towns, which received an immense impulse after the Norman Conquest. After the Conquest the court made

The towns. Westminster its chief centre. One result of this was that London, already the most important town, became the recognised capital of the country. It received many liberties by grant or charter from the kings, and finally obtained the right of choosing its own *mayor* or head. The Londoners took an active part in politics, and were very rich and influential. There was no town that approached London in wealth, trade, or number of inhabitants, and the greater country towns were contented to obtain from the king charters which extended to them the liberties already granted to the Londoners. But even the townsmen were not very keen or enterprising traders. Foreign trade was almost altogether in the hands of Italians and Germans, and money-lending was the special business of

the Jews, who thrrove by it so much that they were the first private people to build stone houses to live in. However, their religion and their usury made the Jews



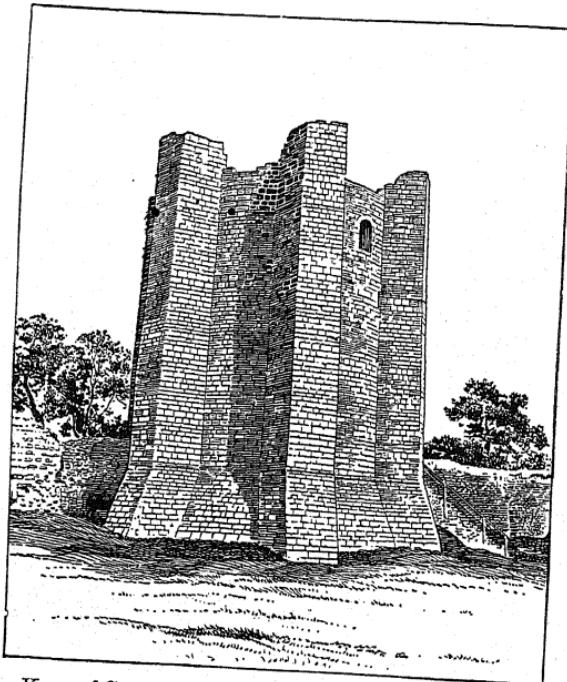
The Jews' House at Lincoln.

very unpopular, and in 1290 Edward I. drove them out of the country.

7. The finest buildings were the castles, churches, and monasteries. The Norman castle was, as we have seen, a solid square tower of stone, supported by outworks. Later on the tower became round, instead of square. A fine example of a late Norman tower is that of Conisborough, near Doncaster in Yorkshire, where the huge round tower is further strengthened by buttresses. During the thirteenth century castles grew still more elaborate, until we reach the famous castles built by Edward I. in Wales, which are called *concentric*, because they consist of several lines of defence circling round a common

Castles.

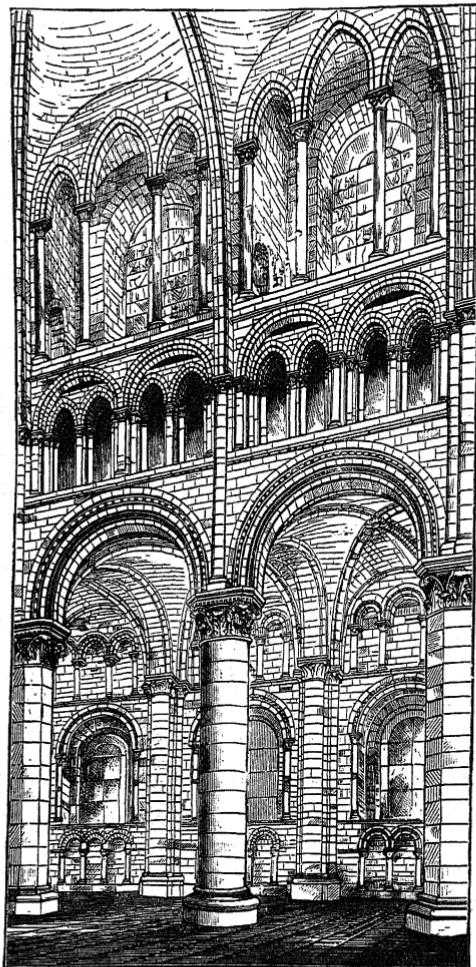
126 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries
centre. Instances of these are to be seen in the cuts of
Conway and Carnarvon Castles on pages 113 and 114.



Keep of Conisbrough Castle (End of Twelfth Century).

8. Church-building developed like castle-building, and perhaps the most beautiful churches ever set up in this country arose in the days of Henry III. and Edward I. The old Norman fashion of building began to die out about Henry II.'s time, and in its stead arose the Gothic style, brought in from France. We have seen a good example of this in Henry III.'s rebuilding of Westminster Abbey. But there was no sudden change from the old to the newer style. Gothic grew gradually out of the Early Gothic architecture. older Norman; and we can see, especially in buildings of Henry II.'s time, how the one style faded into the other. A good instance of this

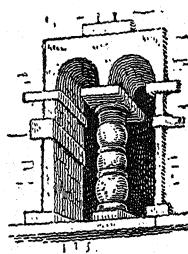
transition is to be seen in the choir or eastern part



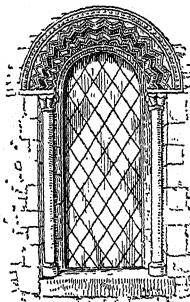
Part of the Choir of Canterbury Cathedral.
(In building from 1175-1184.)

of Canterbury Cathedral, built by a French architect soon after the murder of Thomas Becket. This is

nearly Gothic, but we see that the great arches are still round, after the earlier Norman fashion, though

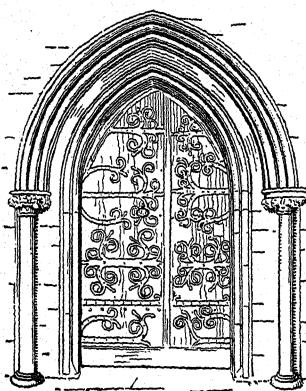


Saxon Window, St. Benet's Church, Cambridge.

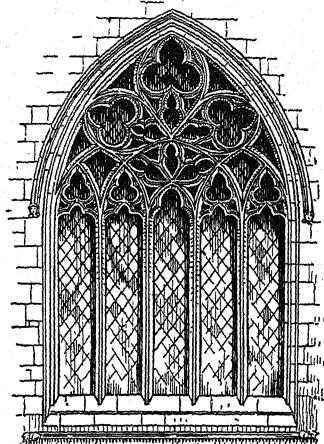


Norman Window, St. John's, Devizes.

the highest tier of arches is pointed. By Henry III.'s time Gothic had attained its finest proportions. Build-



Early English Doorway, Uffington, Berkshire.



Decorated Window, Leigh Church, Staffordshire.

ings were then erected in the style called *Early English*, with lancet windows, clustered shafts, and

great delicacy of detail. Under Edward I. a richer style gradually came in, which is called *Decorated*. We can see in the pictures here given some of the differences of detail between these two forms of Gothic, and of its relations to the older Anglo-Saxon and Norman styles.

9. Dress changed very slowly, though it became richer and more luxurious as time went on. Gentlemen wore long gowns, falling below the knee, so that, as the pictures show, men and women did not look very different from each other. Rich stuffs, bright colours, fur, and jewels, were worn by the wealthy of both sexes alike. Fur was

Dress and
Armour.



Lay Costumes in the Twelfth Century.

very necessary in winter time, since fuel was scarce, and thick garments were the chief means of keeping out the cold. There was a great difference between the simple garments of the poor and the fine clothes of the nobles and gentry. In war-time soldiers' armour became much more elaborate. Save for kings and leaders, body armour was rare before the invasions of the Danes and Normans. These brought in the *hauberk*

or tunic of *chain-mail*, in which the whole garment consisted of small rings of steel or iron, linked closely together. An early form of this is shown in the cuts figured from the Bayeux Tapestry on pages 49 and 65.



Effigy of William Long-espée, Earl of Salisbury.
(Showing Armour worn from 1225-1250.)

During the twelfth century the hauberk was supplemented by other trappings which enabled the bearer better to ward off attack.

The helmet, hitherto open, save for a *nasal* protecting the nose, became an elaborate structure, closed by a grating, or *visor*, with holes for eyes and mouth. Under the helmet was worn a skull-cap of steel, covered by a hood of mail, shielding the whole head and neck. Horses as well as men were now protected by armour. Over the coat of mail the knight now wore a surcoat, on which, or on his shield, was painted or embroidered his arms or device. Every knight had his personal or family badge, and a special science called Heraldry grew up, which explained the differences between the arms of the various knightly and baronial families. The cut of a knight on page 87, and that of the Earl of Salisbury

on this page, illustrate some of the later forms of chain armour.

10. The Church was now at its strongest. Reinigorated by the Norman Conquest, it was kept active and energetic by a series of great leaders and teachers, such as Anselm and Becket. The monks grew more wealthy and powerful than ever, and from time to

time fresh *orders* or forms of monastic life were established. The most important of these were the *Mendicant Orders*, which came to England in the reign of Henry III. The two chief mendicant orders were the Franciscans and the Dominicans, founded by Francis, an Italian, and Dominic, a Spaniard. While the older orders of monks held great landed estates, Francis and Dominic ordered their followers to possess nothing at all, but to gain their living by begging for their bread. This was why they were called the mendicant or begging orders. They were also styled the *Friars* or *brethren*, a word taken from the French *frère*. They were therefore often described as the Mendicant Friars.

11. Another difference between the Friars and the older orders was that while the Benedictines and the other earlier monks aimed at withdrawing from the world as much as they could, the Friars lived in the world and tried to make it better. They preached, visited the sick, cared for the poor, and made themselves loved and feared by every class of society. As time went on they fell away from their early activity; but even in their decline they remained very powerful, and down to the Reformation the Friars continued to be the chief teachers of religion to the poor.

12. As war became less common, and Europe grew richer and more prosperous, learning and science revived. All over Europe throngs of students flocked to be taught by some well-known teacher; and in the latter part of the twelfth century began the *Universities*, which have ever since had such an important influence on the spread and advance of knowledge. The universities were corporations or guilds of teachers or learners, which received from kings and popes special privileges that made them very powerful. The earliest uni-

The Mendicant Friars.

Their work among the poor.

Learning and the Universities.

versities were abroad, and the most celebrated one in northern Europe was at Paris. However, in Henry II.'s time, an English university grew up at Oxford, which by the days of Henry III. had become very famous. Before this a second English university arose at Cambridge, though this did not acquire the reputation of Oxford until the beginning of the Tudor period. The chief studies of the universities were Philosophy, Theology, Law, and Medicine. The lectures were all given in Latin, which was still the everyday language of scholars. Students wandered freely all over Europe from one university to another, and thus became acquainted with other lands than their own. They were of all ranks of life, and many scholars were very poor. But the universities enabled the poorest men to rise by their learning into the highest stations of life. A poor scholar might become an archbishop, cardinal, or pope. The Church was in those days the only learned profession, and all scholars had the privileges of the clergy.

13. Taken altogether, life in those days was very picturesque and full of strange contrasts between what was bad and what was good. But things mediæval were moving steadily forward. Life became much less rough and savage than it had been. The fierce soldier was still very powerful, and there was still much bloodshed, misery, and famine. But however much we may be struck by the differences between our times and those of Edward I.'s, we must never forget how, after all, human nature was very much the same then as it is now. And in some ways, perhaps, the men of Edward's day could do things better than we can. In particular, they could build those splendid buildings, which alone would show that our land had far outgrown its earlier barbarism, and had acquired a fine perception of what was beautiful and true.

CHAPTER XIV

Edward II. of Carnarvon, 1307-1327

(Married Isabella of France)

Principal Persons:

Robert Bruce, King of Scots; Piers Gaveston; the two Hugh Despensers; Roger Mortimer.

Principal Dates:

- 1307. Accession of Edward II.
- 1312. Execution of Gaveston.
- 1314. Battle of Bannockburn.
- 1327. Deposition of Edward II.

1. Edward II., the son and successor of Edward I., was a strange contrast to his father. Though tall, strong, and good-looking, he was a coward and an idler. Even bad kings like John had taken seriously the work of ruling the kingdom, but Edward II. thought of nothing but amusing himself. He had long been influenced for evil by *Piers Gaveston*, a gentleman from that part of Aquitaine called *Gascony*. Edward I. had driven the young Gascon out of the country in the hope that in his absence the heir to the throne might learn better ways. But all his father's care was thrown away on such a worthless fellow as Edward. As soon as he had become king, he brought Gaveston back to England. He neglected his solemn promise to his father to persevere in the war against the Scots, and hurried back to London. Before long the barons grew indignant against the weak king and

his insolent and greedy favourite. They twice expelled Gaveston from the country, but on each occasion he soon came back again. At last the barons took him prisoner and put him to death. Edward was too feeble even to revenge Gaveston's murder, and soon had to make terms with his enemies. But

with such a king as Edward things were sure to go on badly whoever was in power. All through the reign there was constant quarrelling between the king and the barons. The result was that the country was very badly governed and every one was discontented.

2. Edward II.'s weakness did good to nobody but Robert Bruce and the Scots. When Edward I.

died, Bruce's position was still doubtful; but when Edward II. gave up fighting the war in person, the chances of the new Scottish king grew brighter.

Robert
Bruce wins
over all
Scotland.

Bit by bit Bruce chased away the English garrisons. After about six years he had conquered nearly all Scotland. Only a few castles still held out for Edward. The chief of these was *Stirling*, a strong fortress situated on the river Forth, and the

place through which the best road from the Lowlands to the Highlands passed. At last Bruce besieged Stirling also, and soon the garrison was so hard pressed, that they agreed to surrender if not relieved by St. John's Day, 24th June 1314.

3. If Stirling fell, the English rule in Scotland was at an end. Even Edward II. felt that he must make an effort to avoid so deep a disgrace. He was

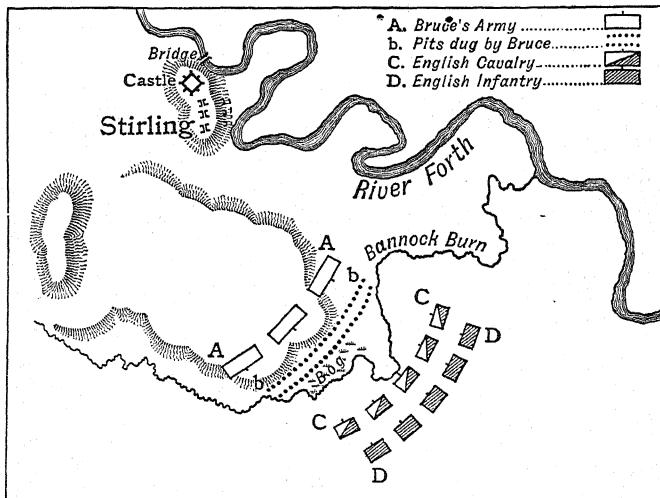


Edward II.

at this moment on fair terms with his barons, and had professed to forgive them for the murder of Gaveston. King and barons accordingly joined to raise an army to prevent

The Battle
of Bannock-
burn.

Bruce getting hold of Stirling. A great host gathered together. But big as it was, it had little discipline and no real general. It was so slow in marching that it only came near Stirling on the day appointed for



Walker & Cockerell sc.

Battle of Bannockburn.

its surrender. Bruce resolved to fight a battle to prevent the siege being raised, and marshalled his army at *Bannockburn*, a few miles to the south. As with Wallace at *Falkirk*, the Scots fought on foot and the English on horseback. But Bruce took every precaution to protect his thickly planted squares of spearmen. He dug pits before his lines, and fastened sharp stakes in them, and covered the whole over lightly with turf. The mail-clad English thundered on their heavy horses towards the Scottish

army. But the pits gave way before their weight, and many fell into the snare. Meanwhile the Scottish archers galled them with their arrows, while the pikemen stood steady, shoulder to shoulder, awaiting the onset. Before long the English horse were plunged into hopeless confusion and galloped headlong from the field. The English infantry hardly came into action. Edward himself was one of the first to run away.

4. The battle of Bannockburn was quite decisive.

~~Scotland secures its independence.~~ There was still a great deal of fighting, but the Scots continued to win. At last, in 1328, Edward III. signed the *Peace of Northampton*, by which he recognised Bruce as King of Scots, and released Scotland from all feudal dependence on England.

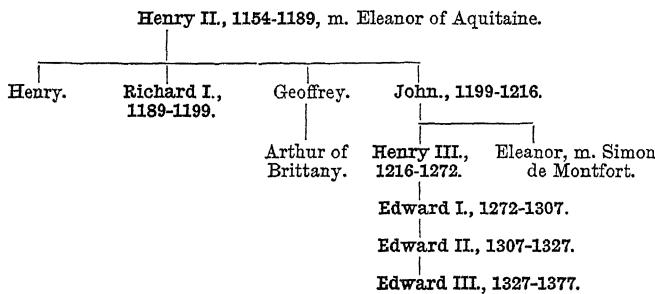
5. Edward reigned twelve years after Bannockburn, but all that time things grew worse and worse. He had now new favourites, the two *Hugh and the Despensers*, father and son. These were, at least, English noblemen, and not foreign upstarts like Gaveston. But they were soon as bitterly hated as ever Gaveston had been. Their greediness and pride set every one against them. But Edward upheld them until his fondness proved his ruin.

6. *Isabella of France*, Edward's wife, was a bad woman, but she had plenty of real grievances against

~~The deposition of Edward II.~~ her husband and the Despensers. She cleverly pretended to be contented, and got from Edward permission to go to France to see her brother, the French king. Their little son, also named Edward, went with her. At Paris she made friends with *Roger Mortimer*, a brutal baron from the March of Wales, whom the Despensers had driven into banishment. They agreed to cross over to England and make war against the king. Before long, Isabella, her son, and Mortimer landed in England with a little army. Men were so weary of the king

and his favourites that they gladly welcomed her. Edward fled to his native Wales, but was soon taken prisoner and deposed. The young Edward was made Edward III., but Isabella and Mortimer really governed in his name. Next year Edward II. was cruelly murdered at *Berkeley Castle* in Gloucestershire. We can still see in the neighbouring cathedral of Gloucester the beautiful tomb set up over the remains of the most worthless of all the English kings. Nothing tells us more clearly what splendid works of art the old Gothic sculptors could make. But there is a strange contrast between all the splendour that enshrines the body of the wretched Edward II. at Gloucester and the plain stone slab set up over the remains of his heroic father at Westminster.

GENEALOGY OF THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM HENRY II. TO
EDWARD III.



CHAPTER XV

Edward III., 1327-1377

(Married Philippa of Hainault)

Principal Persons:

Edward Balliol and David Bruce, rival Kings of Scots; Philip VI. and John, Kings of France; Edward the Black Prince; Geoffrey Chaucer, the poet; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

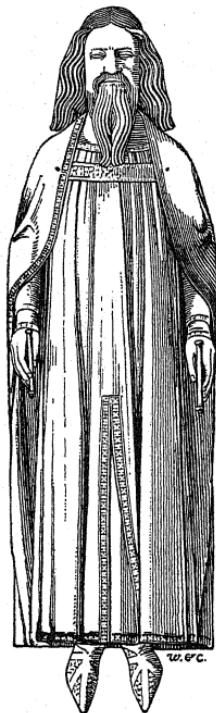
Principal Dates:

- 1327. Accession of Edward III.
- 1328. Peace of Northampton.
- 1330. Isabella and Mortimer driven from power.
- 1337. Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.
- 1340. Battle of Sluys.
- 1346. Battles of Crecy and Neville's Cross.
- 1349. The Black Death.
- 1356. Battle of Poitiers.
- 1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
- 1376. The Good Parliament.
- 1377. Death of Edward III.

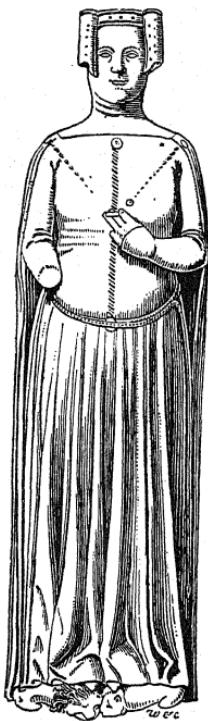
1. Edward III. was only fifteen when he was made king, and for three years Isabella and Mortimer ruled in his name. The chief power was with *The rule of Isabella and Mortimer*, who was made *Earl of March* Mortimer. (that is, of the March of Wales), and given great estates. His arrogance and cruelty made him hated by the barons, and the peace of Northampton, made in 1328, which acknowledged Bruce as King of Scots was so much disliked that men called it 'the disgraceful peace.' In 1330 the king threw off Mortimer's yoke and put him to death. With the fall of Mortimer Edward III.'s real reign began.

2. Edward was a tall, strong, brave, and vigorous king. He was fond of show and display, and kept up a magnificent court. He was a good soldier, and eager to win fame as a general. His first wish was to restore the reputation which his country had lost during the evil days of his father. With that object he

Edward
renews the
war with
Scotland.



Edward III.



Queen Philippa,
Wife of Edward III.

backed up *Edward Balliol*, son of John Balliol, who, after Robert Bruce's death, disputed the Scottish throne with *David*, Robert's son. Edward Balliol succeeded for a short time, but before long David Bruce drove him out and secured his father's inherit-

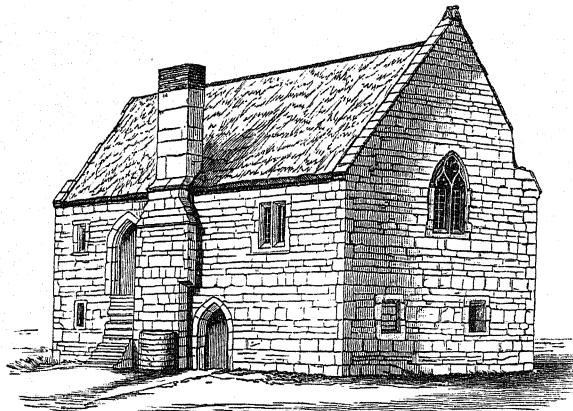
ance. The French, who had already helped King Robert, did a great deal towards bringing back his son.

3. War with France soon followed war with Scotland. This war lasted so long that it is generally called the *Hundred Years' War*. It was not, however, true that fighting went on all that time without a break, but for more than a hundred years England and France were nearly always unfriendly, and generally actually at war with each other. The beginning of the enmity between the two countries was owing to the help which Philip VI., who was then King of France, had given to David Bruce. But there were many other causes of quarrel. Edward was still ruler of a portion of that Aquitanian inheritance which Queen Eleanor had brought as her wedding portion to Henry II. This country was called *Guienne* and *Gascony*, and its chief town was Bordeaux. The French kings had long been striving to drive out the English dukes from Gascony, and make it, as they had made Normandy, part of their own dominions. In the same way the French kings were anxious to conquer *Flanders*, the western part of the country now called Belgium. Flanders in those days was the chief manufacturing country of northern Europe, and its largest towns, Ghent and Bruges, were the best customers that England had for its produce. England in those days was not, as it is now, a great manufacturing country. Most of its people were farmers, and the chief article exported was wool, which was sent to Flanders to be woven into cloth by the Flemish manufacturers. The great towns of Flanders were very much opposed to the King of France, and the English helped them willingly in their resistance to his attacks upon their liberties. All these reasons caused Englishmen and Frenchmen to dislike each

other very much, and now Edward brought this hostility to a head by declaring that he was himself the rightful King of France.

4. Philip VI. of Valois had been King of France since 1328. The three kings before him had been brothers of Isabella, Edward III.'s mother, but all had died without leaving a son. The French nobles were anxious always to be ruled by a man. They declared that the law that no woman should rule prevailed in France,¹

Edward's
claim to the
French
throne.



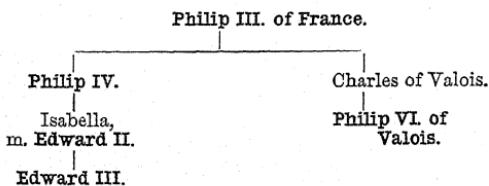
A small House or Cottage at Meare, Somerset (built about 1350).

and therefore said that the throne should go to Philip, the cousin of the last kings and of Isabella. Accordingly Philip became King of France, Isabella and Edward raising but a faint protest. Ten years later, however, when France and England were already drifting into war, Edward formally demanded the throne. He admitted that his mother could not reign in France, but said that she was able to hand on her claim to him. Accordingly he assumed

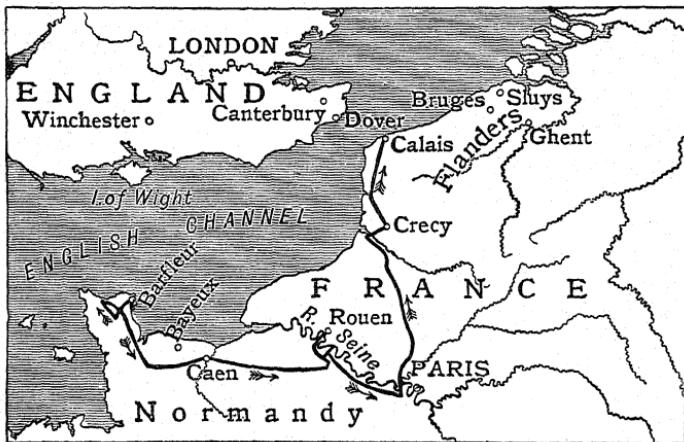
¹ This law was afterwards called the Salic Law.

the title of King of France, and from that moment to the days of George III. every English king called himself also King of France, and quartered on his shield the lilies of France with the lions of England. It was this pretension that made the war last more than a hundred years. But Edward's claim was not a just one, and the French rightly resisted it, as it would have meant their being ruled by a foreigner.

TABLE SHOWING THE CLAIMS OF EDWARD III. AND PHILIP VI.
TO THE FRENCH THRONE.



5. Parliament was glad that Edward was going to



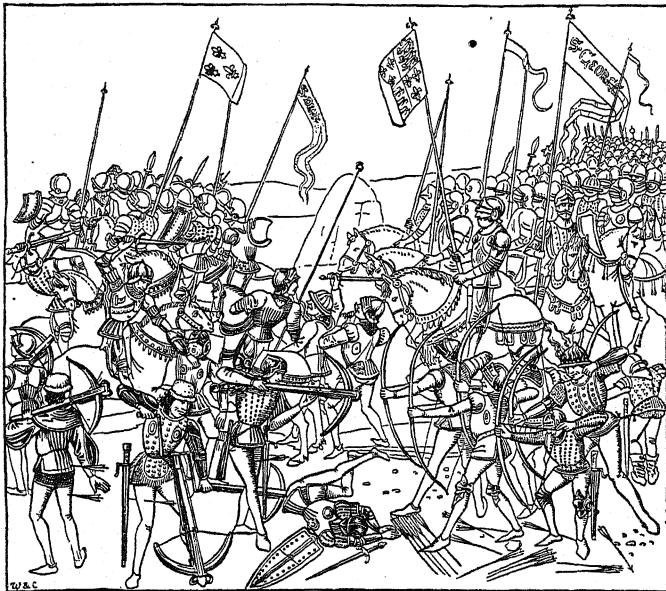
The Campaign of Edward III. in 1346.

fight the French, and willingly granted him liberal supplies, with which he fitted out gallant armies.

Yet during the first years of the war Edward won but few successes. But in 1340 he gained a great sea-fight at *Sluys* off the Flemish coast, one of the earliest and most decisive of English naval victories. This enabled England to send what armies she would over the Channel.

The Battle of Sluys.

6. In 1346 Edward invaded Normandy, taking with

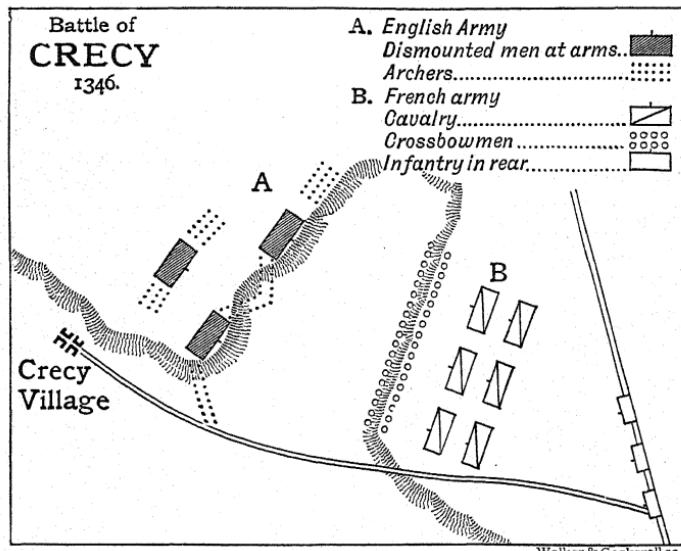


The Battle of Crecy.
(Showing English Archers and French Knights.)

him his young son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, called, from the colour of his armour, the *Black Prince*. After marching from the Norman coast almost to the gates of Paris, the English were forced by superior numbers to retreat northwards. Before long the French came up to them and compelled them to fight a battle at the

The Battle of Crecy.

little village of *Crecy*. The French host was much bigger than the English army, but the English were better trained and more experienced soldiers. They had learned from the disaster at Bannockburn that well-disciplined infantry, supported by archers, could resist the fierce shock of feudal cavalry. Accordingly the English dismounted, took a strong position on the slope of a hill, and prepared to meet the French on foot. After vain attempts to break up the close



English array by showers of bolts from their crossbows, the chivalry of France charged on horseback up to the English lines. But, like the English at Bannockburn, they were thrown into confusion by well-directed flights of arrows, and failed to break through. Before long the little English army gained the most complete of victories. The Black Prince, young as he was, had a great share in winning this battle.

7. Crecy was not the only success of the year. David Bruce, who invaded England in the hope of helping the French, was beaten at *Neville's Cross*, near Durham, and taken prisoner. Moreover, next year Edward took the French seaport of *Calais*, which remained English for more than two hundred years. For all this period it served as the open gate through which England might pour its armies into northern France.

8. A few years after this, Edward the Black Prince was made Duke

The Black Prince in Aquitaine, and sent to Bordeaux, where he ruled over as brilliant and gallant a court as that of his father at London. The

Gascons were as devoted to him as were the English, for in those days the men of southern France hated the French king and the north Frenchmen among whom he lived, and preferred to be ruled by their English dukes, who were sprung from their own ancient line of rulers. Year after year, the Black Prince led the best of the knights of England and Gascony in forays into the French king's lands. In 1356, on his return from one of these expeditions, he was attacked near *Poitiers* by a vastly larger army led by King John of France, the son and successor of Philip VI. By this time the French had learned the lesson of Crecy, and leaving their horses in the rear, went to battle on foot after the English fashion. But they were new to this way of fighting, and were out-generalled by

Neville's
Cross and
Calais.



Edward, the
Black Prince.

the English. After a desperate struggle, victory fell to the English and Gascon host, and King John himself was taken prisoner.

9. France now fell into such a terrible condition that in 1360 John was glad to make peace in the *Treaty of*

Bretigny. By this Edward gave up his claim to the French crown on condition of his receiving the part of France between the Loire and the Pyrenees, the complete inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine. But

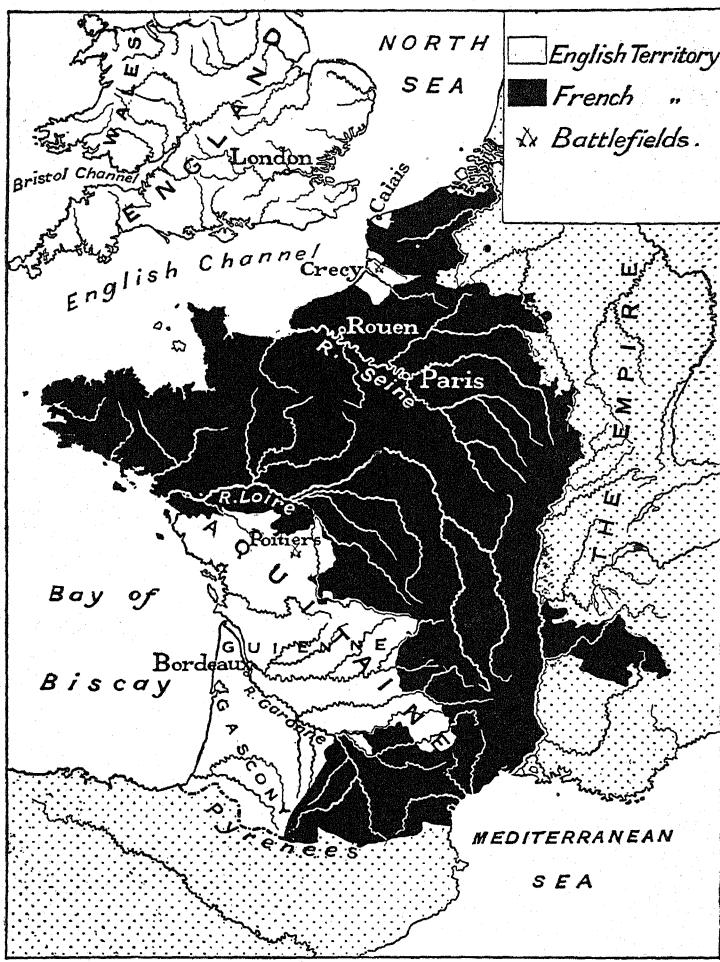
The Treaty of Bretigny, and the collapse of the English power in France. this peace did not last very long. The newly won provinces revolted from their English rulers, and everything went to the bad when ill-health compelled the Black Prince to return from Bordeaux to London. Before Edward III.'s death the English had lost nearly all they had won from the French, save a few coast towns like Calais and Bordeaux, which were easy to hold because the English still commanded the sea. But even in this period of triumph, the French avoided fighting pitched battles with the terrible English. Crecy and Poitiers had made the English archer and man-at-arms the most famous soldiers in Christendom.

10. One result of the long war with France was that the king and nobles, in their dislike of the French, began using English as their daily speech, for the first time since the Norman Conquest. English thus became once more a tongue of courts and society, and many more books were now written in it. The most famous

Chaucer and the revival of the English tongue. English writer of this period was the great poet, *Geoffrey Chaucer*, a servant of Edward III., whose *Canterbury Tales* give us so vivid

and true an account of the life of those days. But the cheerful and merry England Chaucer describes was but one side of the picture. As a whole, Edward's reign was by no means one of unmixed prosperity.

11. In 1349 a plague called the *Black Death* spread

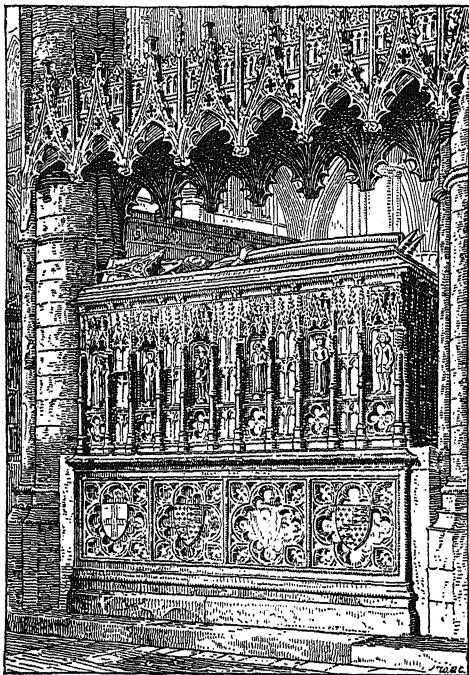


THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN FRANCE AFTER THE
TREATY OF BRETAGNY, 1360.

WALKER & COCHERELL, DEL.

misery all over Europe. In England it is thought that one man in three died of it, and it was long before its ravages were forgotten. The king was not so wise in governing his kingdom as he was brave in fighting the French. He was greedy and unscrupulous, often

The Black Death, and the Order of the Garter.



Tomb of Edward III. in Westminster Abbey.

deceiving his Parliaments in order to get money from them. He was gracious and kindly to knights and nobles, treating even his enemies with kindness and forbearance, as, for example, the captive kings of France and Scotland. He increased the splendour of his court by founding an order of knighthood called

the *Order of the Garter*. This took its name from the garter worn by the knights who were members of it, and the best warriors and nobles were proud to belong to so famous a brotherhood. But Edward cared little for the common people, and often used them cruelly.

12. As Edward grew old, he became sickly and weak, and fell into the hands of unscrupulous ministers. There was much discontent in consequence, and Parliament began to complain bitterly of the king's doings. At last, in 1376, a Parliament met which did so much for the people that men called it the *Good Parliament*. It brought the king's evil ministers to trial by a new method called *Impeachment*, by which the House of Commons accused them of treason or other grave crimes before the House of Lords. It was the last act of the life of Edward the Black Prince to back up the Good Parliament. But the king's third son, *John of Gaunt* (so called because he was born at Gaunt or Ghent in Flanders), supported the courtiers, and was hotly opposed to his elder brother. However, in the midst of the session, the Black Prince, who had never been in good health since he came back from France, died. Without his help the Commons were not strong enough to struggle against John of Gaunt and the courtiers. They were soon sent home, and the bad ministers came back to their places. Soon after this Edward III. died, having long outlived his fame.



Ploughing (about the middle of the Fourteenth Century). (See p. 123.)

C H A P T E R X V I

Richard^o II. of Bordeaux, 1377-1399

(Married (1) Anne of Bohemia ; (2) Isabella of France)

Principal Persons :

Wat Tyler; John Wycliffe; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster;
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester; Henry, Duke of Hereford.

Principal Dates :

- 1377. Accession of Richard II.
- 1381. The Peasants' Revolt.
- 1384. Death of John Wycliffe.
- 1397. Richard II.'s triumph over his enemies.
- 1399. Richard II.'s deposition.

1. Edward III.'s successor was *Richard of Bordeaux*, the son of the Black Prince, who was but a child at his grandfather's death. This minority of made it necessary for the king's council Richard II. to govern in his name, and John of Gaunt was still, as in the days of Edward III., the chief man in the council. But the new reign began badly. Heavy taxes were imposed, but the people got nothing in return for them. The French revenged themselves for past defeats by ravaging the English coasts, and England was ruled weakly and filled with disorder. Four years after Richard's accession discontent came to a head in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381.

2. The causes of this rising were very numerous. Since the feudal system had been brought in, a great deal of the land of England had been cultivated by a class of men called *villeins*, that is, countrymen.

These villeins were in some ways very well off. Each of them had his cottage and little patch of ground, from which he could not be turned off so long as he performed his services to his lord. Though they had no luxuries, the villeins seem in ordinary times to have had plenty of meat, bread, and ale, and enough coarse woollen clothing to keep out the cold. But they were not free. They were not exactly like the slaves that were common in early England.

The causes of the Peasants' Revolt, and the grievances of the villeins.

In the centuries succeeding the Norman Conquest actual slavery had died out. But one result of feudalism had been that men whose ancestors had once been free, had to fall into this condition of villeinage. The villeins were serfs, bound to the soil, who could not move from the estate of their lord on which they lived; moreover, instead of paying a money-rent for their little holding, they were forced

to work so many days a week on their lords' farms. As time went

on the villeins grew discontented. They complained that their lords were too harsh in exacting labour from them, and they were eager to obtain full freedom. Yet the number of villeins was steadily decreasing, since many ran away from their lords and



Richard II.

(From a Lithograph published by the Arundel Society, after the Portrait in a Diptych belonging to the Earl of Pembroke.)

many were set free altogether, through the Church teaching that it was a pious thing for lords to give villeins their liberty. Thus by this time there were, besides the villeins, many free labourers, who could live where they liked, and who, like labourers nowadays, worked for a weekly wage. But the free labourers were quite as discontented as the villeins. Unlike the villeins, they had not their small holding of land to fall back upon, and if there was no work for them, they had to beg or starve. Moreover, they complained that wages were too low, and that they were not able to buy enough food or clothing.

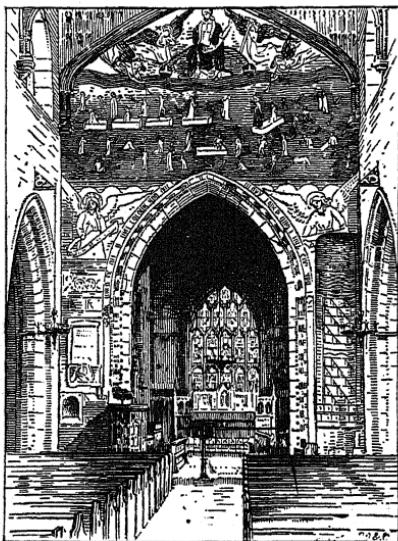
3. Besides the unrest among villeins and labourers, every one was disgusted with the bad government ^{Wat Tyler and the Peasants' Revolt of 1381.} and the heavy taxes. At last in 1381 the Kentishmen rose in revolt against a new tax called a *poll-tax*, that is, a tax which everybody had to pay. Headed by one *Wat Tyler*, they took up arms and marched to London. At the same time the villeins of the Eastern Counties also broke out into rebellion, and demanded that villeinage should be abolished. There were riots all over England, but the Kentish resistance to the poll-tax, and the Eastern Counties rising against villeinage, were by far the most formidable. Like the Kentishmen the Eastern rebels marched on London. Soon the capital was in their hands. They burnt John of Gaunt's palace, and murdered some of the king's ministers.

4. Richard II. was only sixteen years old, but he courageously went from the safe walls of the Tower ^{Richard II. puts down the revolt.} and rode among the rebels, promising to help them in their distress. Wat Tyler threatened the king, and the Mayor of London slew him on the spot. The rebels raised a loud cry for vengeance, but Richard declared that he himself would be their leader now that their chieftain was slain. He promised to pardon their rebellion and

release them from villeinage. Pleased with his bravery, many of the peasants went home. But it was soon found that the king had no power to carry out his promises, and the gentry, plucking up courage, set to work to put down the revolt systematically. The cruelties worked by the peasants in their brief moment of triumph were now repeated against them by their victorious masters. They were forced once more into villeinage, and the only immediate result of the rebellion was that it frightened the Government into better ways, and broke down the power of John of Gaunt. But unsuccessful as the revolt was, it marked the beginning of the end of villeinage. The lords of villeins gradually found out that it was hardly worth the trouble for them to exact forced labour from their serfs, and that the work was done better by free men paid a reasonable wage. Within a hundred years of the Peasants' Revolt villeinage almost disappeared.

5. There were other discontented men in England besides the peasants. For many hundred years everybody had believed whatever the Church chose to preach. But the Church was neither so pure nor so energetic as it had been a hundred years before. Its great wealth was a snare to its clergy. Many of the bishops spent all their time on politics, and the parish priests were often ignorant and corrupt. Towards the end of Edward III.'s reign, strange doctrines were heard in the University of Oxford with regard to the power of the Church. A sturdy Yorkshire man, named *John Wycliffe*, whose lectures at Oxford had long brought him a great reputation, now taught that only those priests and bishops were to be believed who lived good lives. He declared that the Pope had no authority in England. He urged that the Church should be deprived of its property, so that, being made poor as Christ was, it might be better able to do its

work in humbleness and self-devotion. At last he began to deny some of the great doctrines of the Church. His teaching was the more to be dreaded since he was not content with expounding his ideas to students in Oxford lecture-rooms. He sent out followers of his, called Wycliffe's *poor priests*, who wandered about the country proclaiming the new



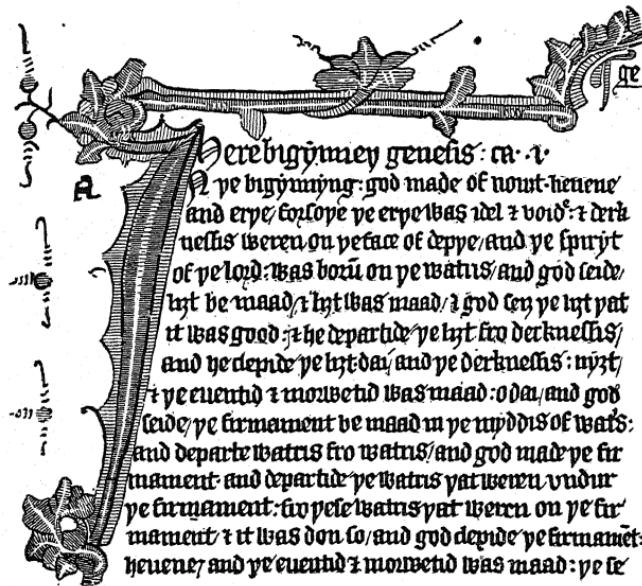
Lutterworth Church.

(View of the Interior, showing the old Painting of 'The Doom'.)

gospel. Moreover, he wrote short tracts in English that every one could understand. He translated the Bible into English, and taught men to seek in the Bible only for the true doctrine of Christ. His disciples, called *Lollards* or *Babblers*, by the friends of old ways, soon became numerous. But as time went on Wycliffe's views became so extreme that many ceased to follow him. He was condemned by the Church, and was no longer allowed to lecture at Oxford. But he

was permitted to go home to his country parish of Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he died in 1384. For the rest of the reign his followers remained very active.

6. The good hopes suggested by Richard II.'s conduct during the rebellion were belied by his later life. As he grew up he showed that he was proud, despotic,



Portion of Page of the Manuscript of Wycliffe's Bible.

(Three-fourths Scale of Original.)

and careless of his people. But he was no foolish do-nothing like Edward II. He was often lazy and indifferent, but he had from time to time outbursts of energy, during which he was well able to frame a policy of his own. He made friends with the French king Charles VI., and married his daughter. After that he only thought of making himself an absolute monarch like his father-in-law in France, and did not even try to get on with

Richard II.
becomes a
tyrant.

his nobles and Parliaments. Accordingly, there arose once more a party of opposition among the nobles, who for some years managed, as under Edward II., to deprive the king of all his authority. In 1397, however, Richard utterly triumphed over his enemies, and put several of their leaders to death, one of them being his own uncle, *Thomas, Duke of Gloucester*. Others he drove into banishment. He now had the nation at his mercy, and thought he could rule as sternly as a French king.

7. Of Richard's old enemies, two only remained in England. The chief of these was *Henry of Lancaster*, Duke of Hereford, the eldest son of John of Gaunt. He had, however, deserted the party of the nobles,

The banishment of Henry of Lancaster. and had in consequence been pardoned by the king. Richard, however, still distrusted him, and before long banished him from

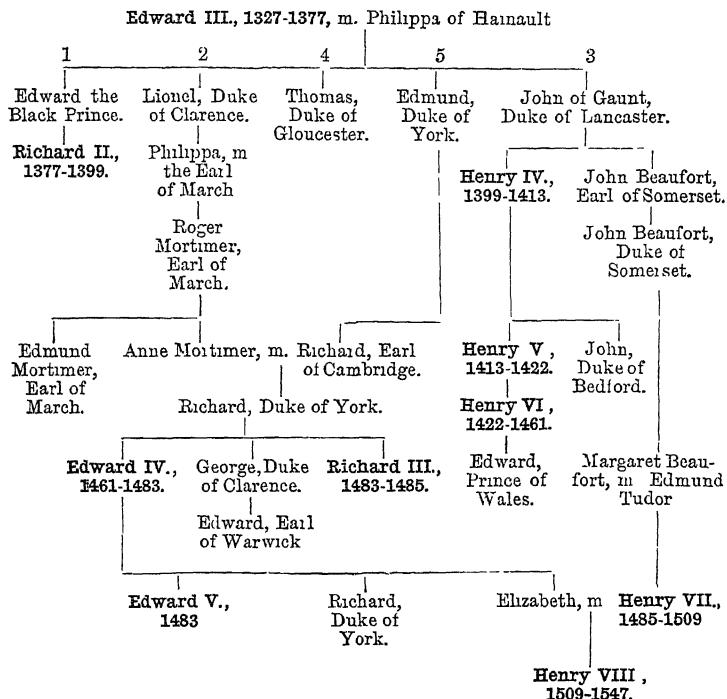
England on account of his wishing to fight a duel. This seemed a very harsh step, since in those days the ordinary way of nobles settling their quarrels was by fighting the matter out. But Richard showed still greater severity a little later. John of Gaunt died, and Henry of Hereford, as his heir, should have been allowed to take possession of his duchy of Lancaster. But instead of allowing this, Richard took the Lancaster estates into his own hands. Henry was very indignant, and joined with the other banished enemies of Richard in an attempt to win back his rights.

8. In 1399 Henry landed at *Ravenspur*, in the Humber, declaring that he asked for nothing but his father's lands and titles. Before long he was at the head of a gallant army. At this moment Richard was

The deposition of Richard II. away in Ireland, but he hurried back as soon as the news came that his cousin was returned. He was, however, too late. All England had thrown off the yoke of the despotic

Richard, just as all England had, seventy years before, refused to be ruled by the lazy Edward II. Richard was forced to surrender to Henry, who was no longer content with the duchy of Lancaster, but also claimed the throne. A Parliament was assembled, which deposed Richard and recognised Henry of Lancaster as Henry IV. Richard, like Edward II., did not long survive his dethronement. Next year he was murdered in his prison of *Pontefract Castle* in Yorkshire.

GENEALOGY OF THE DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III., TO SHOW THE CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER TO THE THRONE.



BOOK IV

THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER, 1399-1485

CHAPTER XVII

Henry IV., 1399-1413

(Married (1) Mary Bohun; (2) Joan of Navarre)

Principal Persons:

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March; Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and his son, Henry Percy, called Hotspur; Owen Glendower; Henry, Prince of Wales.

Principal Dates:

- 1399. Accession of Henry IV.
- 1401. Statute for the Burning of Heretics.
- 1403. Battle of Shrewsbury.
- 1413. Death of Henry IV.

1. Henry IV. was not the nearest heir. His father, John of Gaunt, was Edward III.'s third son, and, though Richard II. had no children, there was still alive a great-grandson of *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, Henry IV.'s claim to the second son of Edward III. This was the throne.

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who not only inherited through his grandmother, Clarence's daughter, the best claim by birth to the throne, but also the estates in the west country, which, since the days of his ancestor, Roger Mortimer the traitor, had belonged to the Earls of March. Richard II. had recognised the earl's father as his heir, but after

Richard's deposition no one paid attention to this. This was not only on account of Richard's worthlessness, but because every one felt that the throne was not bound to descend, like a piece of land, to the nearest heir by blood. Up to Norman times the English had been in the habit of regularly electing their kings; and in those days, though they generally chose a near kinsman of the last king, they did not by any means always select his legal heir. In later days, though the form of election had passed away, some right of choice remained to Parliament.



Royal Arms as borne by Henry IV. after about 1408,
and by successive Sovereigns down to 1603.

As a rule, it was found best to let the throne go by hereditary succession. But at various times there have been exceptions to this practice. Accordingly Parliament was within its rights in recognising Henry as king. This should prevent us calling the House of Lancaster, which began with Henry IV., a race of usurpers. But we should remember that, like our present royal house, they ruled through what is called a *parliamentary title*, that is to say, because Parliament had declared them to be kings, and not because they were the nearest by blood to the previous reigning family.

2. Henry IV., owing his throne to Parliament, was compelled to pay more attention to its wishes than Richard II. or even Edward III. had done. His son

and grandson were also obliged to follow the will of Parliament for the same reason. The result of this was that during the Lancastrian period Parliament had more power than it had ever had before. This period was therefore a time of *constitutional monarchy*. In throwing off the despotic rule of Richard II., the English people took good care to prevent his successors following his example.

3. Another result of Lancastrian rule was the fall of the Lollards. Wycliffe had long been dead, but his followers were still strong. But Henry IV. was a great friend of the Church, and bishops who had helped to win him his throne felt so afraid of the Lollards that they called upon him to help them to put them down. Many of the Lollards were good and earnest men, but they taught very strange and novel doctrine, which seemed to most pious folk to

The constitutional rule of the Lancastrians.



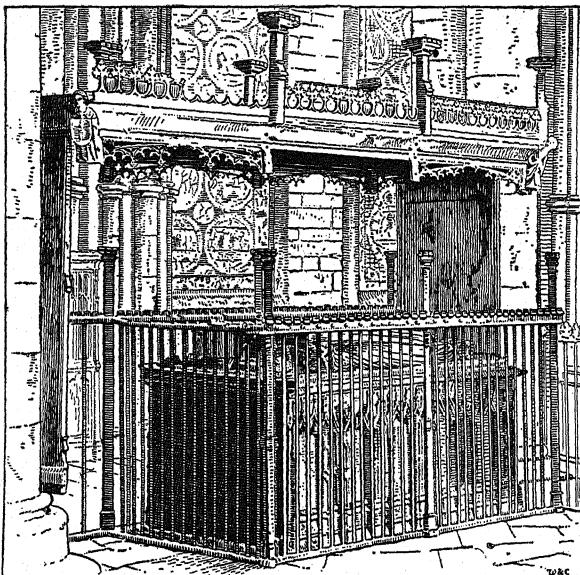
Thomas Cranley, Archbishop of Dublin.

(Showing Archiepiscopal Vestments, 1397-1417.)

be dangerous heresy. In those days it was thought the duty of the Government to put down all wrong

The persecution of the Lollards.

opinions about religion, and most men agreed that the Lollards held unsound views. Parliament therefore passed, in 1401, an Act ordering that all heretics should be burned to death. Many Lollards suffered under this law, and gradually their teaching withered away before the fires of persecution. This shows that the Lollards were only a small part of the nation. You



Tomb of Henry IV., Canterbury Cathedral.

cannot by persecution stamp out a view that most people hold.

4. Henry had been honourable, religious, and high-minded, a good soldier, and a sound statesman. But he did some evil things in his efforts to win and maintain the throne, and the guilt of Richard's blood lay heavy on his soul. Parliament limited his power. The French made successful war against him. The friends of the

The revolts
of the Percies
and Owen
Glendower.

murdered king plotted his death. The nobles who had done most to make him king deserted him, because he would not give them enough power. Among these was the great northern house of Percy, whose heads were *Henry Percy*, Earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry, commonly called *Hotspur*, by reason of his rash valour. In 1403 they raised a rebellion, and agreed to join hands with a bold and able Welshman, *Owen Glendower*, who had already led all Wales to revolt against Henry, and was striving to make himself independent Prince of Wales. Accordingly the Percies marched to the Welsh border to meet Owen. Luckily, however, for Henry, the Welsh chieftain was busy in South Wales and did not appear. The king now came up with an army and defeated the Percies at the *Battle of Shrewsbury*, where Hotspur was killed. Nevertheless old Northumberland rose in revolt once more, and continued to give Henry trouble until he too was slain in another battle. Owen held out in Wales for the rest of Henry's reign, but his power, once so great, gradually grew less, until at last he lost nearly all his followers. But Owen managed to avoid surrender and died a free man on his hills. Long before this, however, Henry IV. had broken the back of the difficulties that beset him. But he was worn out in the struggle, and after years of ill-health died, aged before his time, in 1413.

C H A P T E R X V I I I

Henry V., 1413-1422 (Married Catharine of France)

Principal Persons :

Charles VI., King of France; his son, the Dauphin Charles; John and Philip, Dukes of Burgundy.

Principal Dates :

- 1413. Accession of Henry V.
- 1415. Battle of Agincourt.
- 1420. Treaty of Troyes.
- 1422. Death of Henry V.

1. The next king, Henry V., was the eldest son of Henry IV. Many stories have been told about the wild life which he had led when he was Prince of Wales. But though there may be some truth in them, he had also from his earliest manhood been well trained both in war and politics. As a mere boy he had fought against Owen Glendower, and when his father's health broke down he had helped to govern his kingdom, and had perhaps shown rather too much eagerness to step into his place. No one now gainsaid his title, and he was therefore able to rule much more firmly than his father. He was a splendid soldier, a popular and wise statesman, and a much better man than the tales told of his youth would have led one to expect. But he was always rather cold and unsympathetic. He had a wonderful power of believing that whatever he wished to do was right; but right

or wrong, whatever he set his hand to, he did with all his might.

2. Henry was greedy for military glory, and was tempted to renew Edward III.'s claim to the throne of France. This was absurd enough, for he was not, as we have seen, the nearest heir to Edward III., so that even if Edward's title had been a good one, it would not have descended to Henry V. But the French had

Henry
renews the
Hundred
Years' War.



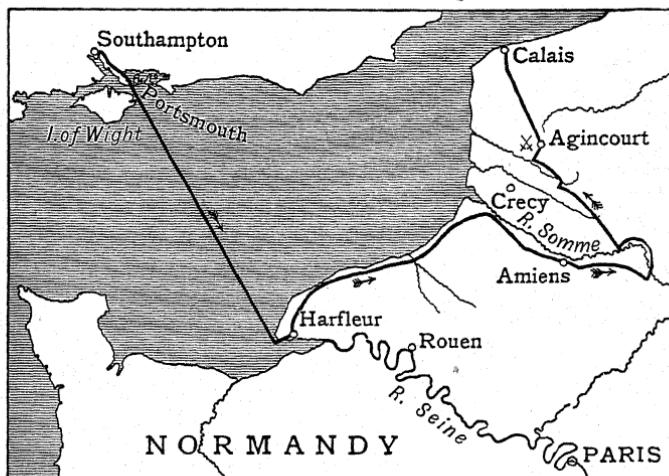
Henry V.
(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

annoyed Henry and his father by their friendship for Richard. Moreover, Charles VI., King of France, had gone out of his mind, and France had been reduced to a wretched state through the quarrels of her nobles with each other. By this time Frenchmen and Englishmen hated each other so much that neither side cared much for the reason why they

were fighting, so long as they had a chance of coming to blows.

3. In 1415 Henry crossed over to Normandy and took *Harfleur*, then the chief port at the mouth of the *Seine*. The siege was long and severe, and Henry lost more soldiers through sickness than from the weapons of the enemy. After its capture Henry could only march through Normandy towards Calais. His movements were very like those

The Battle of Agincourt.

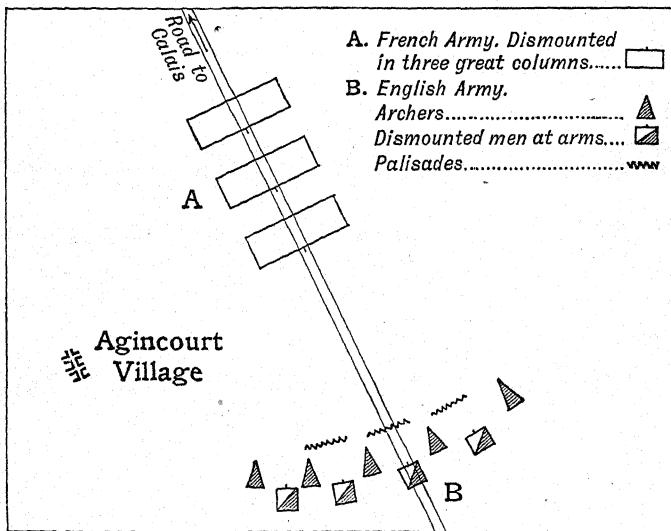


Henry v.'s Campaign in 1415.

Walker & Cockerell sc.

of Edward III. in 1346. Like his great-grandfather, he was pursued by a French army, far outnumbering his own. Again, like Edward, he was forced to fight a battle to cover his retreat. Finding that the French army had got between him and Calais, he prepared to meet their attack on 25th October at *Agincourt*, not very far from *Crecy*. It was *Crecy* over again. The English fought on foot, and set up palisades of long stakes to protect the archers. The French men-at-arms also dismounted. But they long hesitated to

make the expected onslaught. At last Henry ordered his archers to shift their stakes forwards and provoke an attack. Then at last the enemy was forced to charge, but our archers shot down so many that their whole line was thrown into confusion. The dismounted English men-at-arms now advanced, and dealt lusty strokes against the disordered and dispirited enemy. Before long the whole French army was fleeing in panic



Battle of Agincourt.

from the field. Seldom was so great a victory won with so little loss. But our army was so weak that all it could do was to complete its journey to Calais.

4. Two years later Henry led another expedition to Normandy, and set to work to conquer that country bit by bit. He made rapid progress, and at The murderer of Burgundy, last captured Rouen, the capital. Not even and the Treaty of Troys. English victories could shame the French nobles into forgetting their quarrels with each other and uniting against the enemy. At last

John, Duke of Burgundy, the leader of one of the French factions, was treacherously murdered in the presence of *Charles the Dauphin*, eldest son of the mad king, and the chief of the other French party. Eager to avenge his father's death, *Philip*, the new Duke of Burgundy, made an alliance with the English. Henry was already strong when he was dependent only on his sturdy English soldiers. But his alliance with Burgundy, whose party was the strongest in France, made him irresistible. In 1420 the French were forced to make the *Treaty of Troyes*, by which Henry married Catharine, the daughter of Charles VI., and was recognised as the successor of his father-in-law at his death, and regent for the rest of his life. The result of this was that most of the north of France submitted to the united English and Burgundian power. But Charles the Dauphin held out in the south against the treaty which took away from him his inheritance.

5. There was still hard fighting to be done, and Henry accordingly led a third expedition to France. In the course of this he was suddenly cut off in 1422 when only thirty-five years of age. His mad father-in-law followed him to the tomb within two months. Thus it was that Henry's infant son, Henry VI., succeeded before he was a year old to the two kingdoms of England and France.

Death of
Henry V.

CHAPTER XIX

Henry VI., 1422-1461

(Married Margaret of Anjou)

Principal Persons :

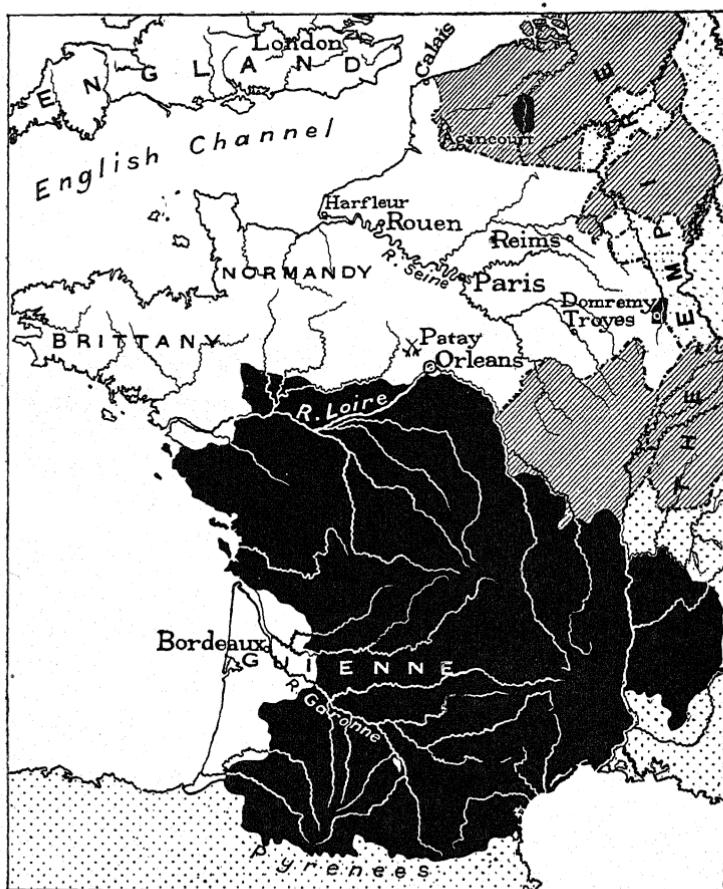
John, Duke of Bedford ; Charles VII., King of France ; Philip, Duke of Burgundy ; Joan of Arc ; Jack Cade ; Richard, Duke of York, and his son, Edward, Earl of March, afterwards Edward IV.

Principal Dates :

- 1422. Accession of Henry VI.
- 1429. Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.
- 1435. Death of Bedford, and end of the alliance of England and Burgundy.
- 1453. England loses Gascony.
- 1455. Battle of St. Albans.
- 1460. Battle of Wakefield.
- 1461. Deposition of Henry VI., and Battle of Towton.

1. It was a lucky thing for the little Henry VI. that the government of both England and France, during the first years of his reign, fell to his uncle, *John, Duke of Bedford*, a younger son of Henry IV. Bedford did all that was possible to uphold the English power abroad and to keep on good terms with Duke Philip of Burgundy, upon whose support his hopes to make his nephew a real king of France depended. But it was unlikely that Frenchmen should consent to be ruled by a foreign king, and it was a bad thing for the English themselves to attempt to conquer a great and proud nation like the French. But faction

The Regent Bedford up-holds the English cause in France.



WALKER & COOKERELL, DCL.

English Territory. French. Burgundian.

$\times\!\times$ Battlefields.

Territory other than French, British, or Burgundian.

THE ENGLISH KING'S DOMINIONS IN FRANCE IN 1429.

(After the Treaty of Troyes.)

hopelessly split up the French into rival parties, and the support which many Frenchmen gave to Henry made Bedford's task seem less desperate than it really was. Nearly all North France and Paris itself acknowledged King Henry, though here, even, there was still much fighting. Bedford won victories which showed that the English were still better soldiers than the French. But he was not strong enough to rule the country that he conquered. North France gradually fell into a terrible condition of weakness and misery.

2. South of the Loire Charles the Dauphin was recognised as *Charles VII.* by all save the Gascons, who were ever faithful to their English dukes. The new king was idle, careless, and faithless, but remained strong enough to hold his own, though his dominions

fell into as wretched a state as the north.
The Siege of Orleans. At last, in 1429, Bedford took a fresh step in

advance. He besieged the important town of *Orleans*, which commanded one of the few bridges which in those days spanned the broad river Loire. Orleans was soon hard pressed, and if it fell, the road to the south stood open.

3. At this moment of the worst troubles of France, there occurred one of the most wonderful things in history. One day there came to King ^{The mission of Joan of Arc.} Charles's court a simple country girl named

Joan Darc, or, as the English called her, *Joan of Arc*. While watching her sheep near her home at Domrémi, on the banks of the Meuse, she had pondered long over the evils which the war had brought upon her country. At last, as she firmly believed, God revealed Himself to her in visions and bade her undertake the work of saving France from the foreigner and restoring the blessings of peace. When she first told of her visions, every one mocked at her, but before long her faith and

earnestness prevailed. She was sent right through central France to the king's court on the Loire. 'The King of Heaven,' said she to Charles, 'bids me tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the city of Reims, and that you shall be deputy of the King of Heaven, who is also King of France.' The careless king had little faith in her words, but things were so desperate that he let her do what she would. She donned armour like a man, had a sacred banner fashioned for her, and rode at the head of a force despatched to help the garrison of Orleans.

4. Joan fought her way into the town and filled the famine-stricken soldiers with a new hope. She bade the English quit the land and recognise Charles as king. Ere long she drove the English from the walls of Orleans, and soon after won a pitched battle over them in the open field at *Patay*. So many English victories had been won that the French themselves had a fixed belief that they were bound to be beaten if they ventured upon a regular battle. But the Maid of Orleans, as Joan was now called, changed all that. She broke the long tide of disaster, and made Frenchmen again have faith in themselves and their country.

5. Joan now fulfilled her promise by leading Charles through the heart of the enemy's country to *Reims*, where she stood by while he was crowned and anointed with the holy oil which, as was believed, had been sent down from heaven for the coronation of the first Christian king of the French. After this ceremony Charles retired beyond the Loire.

6. The first stage of Joan's work had now been accomplished. But she did not regard her mission as completed until she had driven the English out of France. She therefore still remained with the army.

The relief of
Orleans, and
the Battle of
Patay.

Coronation
of Charles
VII.

But success had made her over-confident, and fortune soon turned against her. At last she fell into the hands of the enemy, who, in 1431, burnt The martyrdom of Joan. her as a witch at Rouen. She had done such wonderful things that the English, no less than the French, believed that there was something supernatural about her. But while the French believed that she was a maid sent from God, her enemies professed that she was inspired by the devil. She made such a pathetic end that the English themselves were convinced of her nobility of purpose. 'We are undone,' said they, 'for this maid whom we have burned is a saint indeed.' The English treated Joan cruelly enough, but it is only fair to say that the priests and lawyers who did her to death were Frenchmen of the Burgundian party.

7. The maid's work outlasted her martyrdom. The whole French people was now on the side of Charles.

The fall of the English power in France, and the end of the Hundred Years' War. Bedford struggled nobly to maintain the English power, but died in 1435. Burgundy made peace with Charles, and Paris opened its gates to the national king. It was in vain that the English sought to keep Normandy and Gascony by accepting a truce and agreeing to their young king's marriage with *Margaret of Anjou*, the niece of Charles VII. In a few years the French renewed the war, and easily drove the English out of Normandy. At last they fell on Gascony itself, which, in 1453, finally passed to Charles's hands. After the loss of this last remnant of the inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine, Calais alone remained to the English king in France. Thanks to Joan, France was once more a nation.

8. During Henry VI.'s long minority things went very badly in England. The nobles quarrelled bitterly with each other, and Council and Parliament

could not restrain them. Nor did matters get better when Henry grew up. He was good, intelligent, pious, and meek, but he was not strong enough, either in mind or body, to rule England. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, had the vigour and courage which he lacked, but she was unpopular as a Frenchwoman, and



Henry VI.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

thought more of helping her own friends than of doing her best for her adopted country. Englishmen grew indignant when Normandy and Gascony were lost, and accused the king and his ministers of treachery. The men of Kent, as restless as in Wat Tyler's days, rose in revolt under *Jack Cade*. Cade captured London, and was only driven out and subdued with great difficulty.

9. England had now fallen into the condition of France in the days of the mad Charles VI. The king was no longer a real ruler, and the nobles

The
Protectorate
of Richard,
Duke of
York. fought with each other as they pleased. In despair of Henry, men turned to his cousin, *Richard, Duke of York*, the heir of

Lionel of Clarence, Edward III.'s second son, and the representative of the great house of the earls of March. By birth York had a nearer claim to the throne than Henry. But at first there was no thought of making him king. It was hoped that he would drive away the queen's favourites and help Henry to rule more firmly. In 1453 the king went mad for a time, and it seemed a good way of settling matters to make York *Protector of the Realm*. This meant that York, without the name of king, did the king's work. Unluckily for the nation, Henry VI. got better, and once more went back to his old advisers.

10. York's protectorate was put an end to, but before long he raised an army and sought to win back the government by force. In 1455 he won the

Beginning of
the Wars of
the Roses. *Battle of St. Albans*, and took Henry prisoner. With this battle begin the

Wars of the Roses, so called in later days because the House of York had a white rose as its badge and the House of Lancaster was thought to have a red rose. In reality, however, the red rose was not used till later, when it became the badge of the house of Tudor, which, as we shall see, finally became the heir of Lancaster. Properly, then, the phrase 'Wars of the Roses' is a misnomer. But it is one so universally used that it must still be allowed to stand. Whatever their name, these wars lasted for more than thirty years. It was not, however, a period of continued fighting, but of short wars, divided by longer periods of weak government.

11. Before long, York claimed to be king by reason



of his descent from the elder son of Edward III. The meek Henry did little to resist him, but Margaret fought like a tigress on behalf of her husband and of her only son, *Edward, Prince of Wales*. At last, in 1460, she defeated and slew York at the ^{Deposition} _{of Henry VI.} battle of Wakefield. Her triumph was, however, but a short one. York's eldest son, *Edward, Earl of March*, now Duke of York by his father's death, soon avenged the massacre at Wakefield. He took possession of London, and proclaimed himself Edward IV. Henry and Margaret fled to the north, where the Lancastrians were strongest. Edward soon followed them. On Palm Sunday, 1461, the Yorkists won the crowning victory of the war at Towton, a few miles south of York. This secured the throne for Edward of York. Margaret fled to Scotland, and finally took ship for France. Henry hid himself away among the faithful peasants of Ribblesdale. At last, however, he was discovered and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

CHAPTER XX

The House of York, 1461-1485

EDWARD IV., 1461-1483, m. Elizabeth Woodville.

HENRY VI. restored, 1470-1471.

EDWARD V., 1483.

RICHARD III., 1483-1485, m. Anne Neville.

Principal Persons:

Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick; George, Duke of Clarence; Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III.; Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI.; Richard, Duke of York, son of Edward IV.; the Duke of Buckingham; the Lady Margaret Beaufort; Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond; Caxton the Printer.

Principal Dates:

1461. Accession of Edward IV.

1470. Restoration of Henry VI.

1471. Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury, and Restoration of Edward IV.

1483. Reign of Edward V.

1483. Richard III. deposes Edward V.

1485. Richard III. slain at Bosworth.

1. Edward IV. claimed to be king as the nearest heir of Edward III., and looked upon his cousin Henry as a usurper. Yet few cared a straw whether Edward or Henry was the rightful heir. Why Edward IV. became king. Edward won the throne because he was the wiser man and better soldier. His victory at Towton was his real claim to rule, and most Englishmen were glad to have him as king, because they hoped that he would govern the country better than his cousin had done. Those who regretted Henry most

were the fierce barons of the north and west, who had profited by his weakness to build up their own power. The townsman, the trader and the artisan, the whole of the south and east, then the richest parts of the country, were in favour of Edward. The



Edward IV.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Londoners were enthusiastic on his side. Some of the greatest nobles were also among Edward's supporters. Foremost among these was the House of Neville, whose chief, Richard, Earl of Warwick, did so much to secure him the throne, that he was called the *King-Maker*. Warwick had enormous estates all over the country, and could raise an army among his own tenants. Gentlemen with broad lands of their own thought it

an honour to wear his badge, the *Bear and Ragged Staff*. He had done even more for Edward than the

Percies had done for Henry IV., and as in the case of the Percies, the overweening power of the Nevilles was the most immediate danger before the new king.

2. Edward and Warwick soon began to quarrel. Warwick wanted Edward to make peace with France and wed a French queen, but Edward fell in love with a beautiful young widow named

Quarrel of
Edward IV.
and War-
wick.

Elizabeth Woodville, and married her despite Warwick's advice. The brothers,

sons, and other kinsmen of the queen soon formed a little party, bitterly hostile to Warwick, and entirely trusted by Edward. In revenge, Warwick married his daughter to Edward's brother *George, Duke of Clarence*, and tried to set up his son-in-law against the king. These new factions soon led to renewed fighting. For the moment Edward got the upper hand. In 1470 Warwick and Clarence fled to France. There they met Margaret of Anjou, and made friends with their old enemy. It was agreed that an attempt should be made to drive Edward from the throne.

3. Warwick soon landed in England. So many now flocked to his camp that Edward, unable even to make a fight, fled to the Netherlands. Warwick marched to London, took Henry VI. out of the Tower, and restored him to the throne. The res-
toration of
Henry VI. For a second time Warwick had merited his title of king-maker. He was now monarch in all but name, for Henry's weak wits had been shattered by his misfortunes, and he was, we are told, 'more like a sack of wool than a crowned king.'

4. In 1471, less than six months after his flight, Edward IV. came back to England. His partisans



The Bear and
Ragged Staff.
(Enlarged from a
Drawing in Rous'
*Life of the Earl
Warwick.*)

rallied to his cause, and he marched to London, where he received a royal welcome. He took Henry VI.

Edward IV. prisoner once more, and then went out to recover the meet Warwick. On Easter Sunday, 1471, he ascended the throne.

Edward and Warwick fought out their quarrel at *Barnet*, ten miles north of London. The wretched Clarence deserted his father-in-law, and Warwick himself perished on the field. About the same time Margaret of Anjou, and her son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, who had till now tarried in France, landed in the south of England. Edward IV. fell upon their army at *Tewkesbury*, where the Avon runs into the Severn. There he won another complete victory. Margaret and the little Prince of Wales were taken prisoners. The prince was brutally slain, but Margaret was finally sent back to France. Edward returned in triumph to London, and on the very same day Henry VI. was murdered in the Tower. Of all the ruthless deeds of this cruel time, the slaying of this gentle and saintly king was the worst. It was believed that both Henry and his son had been done to death by the hand of *Richard, Duke of Gloucester*, Edward's youngest brother.

5. Edward IV. reigned without a rival for the rest of his life. At first he took his brother Clarence back to favour, but after a few years he shut him up in the Tower and privately put him to death. For the rest of his reign Edward ruled in peace. He was popular with the people because he kept the nobles in good order, and because he was genial, hearty, and friendly to the gentry and merchants. In one way he governed very differently from the Lancastrians. He cared little for Parliaments, and summoned them seldom. When he wanted money, he did not always go to Parliament, but often asked his subjects to give him what he called a *benevolence*. This was supposed to be a gift offered

The last
years of
Edward IV.

freely to the king, but in reality every one had to pay it. In 1483 Edward died when still a young man.

6. Edward IV. left two young sons, *Edward*, Prince of Wales, and *Richard*, Duke of York. The elder of these was now proclaimed Edward V. But the children were under the care of their ^{The reign of} *Edward V.* mother, Elizabeth Woodville, and it was likely that she and her kinsmen would now have it all their own way. The great nobles, foremost among whom was the *Duke of Buckingham*, hated the queen's upstart relations. They now felt that they must strike at once, or an intolerable yoke would be thrust upon them. They found an ally in Richard of Gloucester, who was eager to supplant his nephews and win the throne. At first Gloucester got himself named *Protector*. He then drove the queen's kinsmen from power, and took away from her the custody of her children, whom he shut up in the Tower.

7. A few weeks later Gloucester spread a report that Elizabeth Woodville had never been lawfully married to his brother, and that the two princes ^{Richard III} therefore had no right to reign. Buckingham ^{drives his nephews from the throne.} made a speech to the citizens of London, in which he declared the rumour to be true, and urged that Richard should himself be recognised as king. The Londoners threw up their caps in the air and cried 'King Richard! King Richard.' At once they went to the duke and begged him to become king. After a show of hesitation he gave his consent. Next day he was proclaimed Richard III. Nothing more was heard of his nephews, and most people believed that he murdered them in the Tower. But so secretly was the deed done that some men thought that the two boys had escaped and were kept somewhere in hiding, waiting for better times. But Richard's cruelty overshot the mark. He had been

recognised as king for much the same reasons as those which had caused Edward IV. to be accepted. A strong, wise, and experienced man was likely to be a more useful ruler than a boy. But fierce and hard as were the English of those days, they grew disgusted.



Richard III.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

with Richard. He was already suspected as having murdered Henry VI. and Henry's son. This new guilt soon began to tell heavily against him. Yet it is rather hard on Richard that he should have had such a bad reputation in history. After all, he was no whit worse than his brother Edward.

8. Richard III. tried to make himself popular by passing good laws, and in particular by abolishing

benevolences, by which Edward iv. had raised so much money without asking Parliament for it. But he never had a fair chance of showing what sort of king he would make. His ally, Buckingham, thought that he was not sufficiently rewarded for his services, and rose in revolt against him. But Buckingham had not enough wisdom to play the part of a King-Maker. Richard easily overpowered him, and struck off his head.

Richard III.
tries to make
himself
popular.

9. Richard had soon to meet a more dangerous enemy. After the murder of Henry vi. and his son, the House of Lancaster had almost died out. But there was still left a representative of John of Gaunt in *Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond*. On his father's side, Henry Tudor sprang from a family of Welsh gentlemen of no high rank. But his mother, *Lady Margaret Beaufort*, was the heiress of a family called the Beauforts, who were descended from the children of John of Gaunt by a second marriage. Accordingly Henry of Richmond was looked up to as a possible Lancastrian leader, and now that the Yorkist faction was divided, the chance of Lancaster was again come. Tudor had long been living in exile. He now landed in Milford Haven at the head of a little army, and received a rapturous welcome from his Welsh fellow-countrymen. He soon gathered enough soldiers together to be able to march against Richard. The armies met at *Bosworth* in Leicestershire, where Richard lost his life. His crown was picked up on the field, and, after the battle, was put on Richmond's head. The Lancastrian exile was henceforth King Henry vii.

The invasion
of Henry
Tudor, and
the death of
Richard III.
at Bosworth.

10. Despite the fierce fighting that had lasted so long, England did not stand still. Life was less heroic and noble than it had been in the days of Edward i.

The Church had decayed, art and scholarship had become more dull and commonplace, and statesmen seem to have grown more greedy and selfish. Nevertheless, life became more tolerable for the ordinary man, who, even when the nobles were fighting one against the other, managed to till his farm or sell his goods in peace. The landlords grew rich with the increase of the wool trade, and the business men in the towns profited by the growth of our foreign commerce, though this as yet was but in its beginnings. When Edward IV. and Henry VII. brought back strong government, progress became rapid.

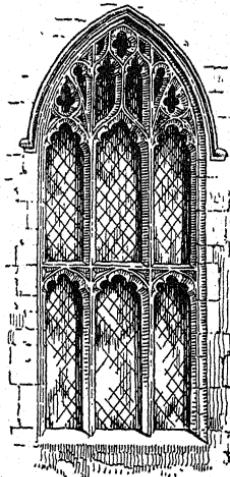
11. The prosperity of the towns was shown by the large number of parish churches rebuilt on a larger

Perpendicular architecture. scale in the late Gothic

style, which we call the

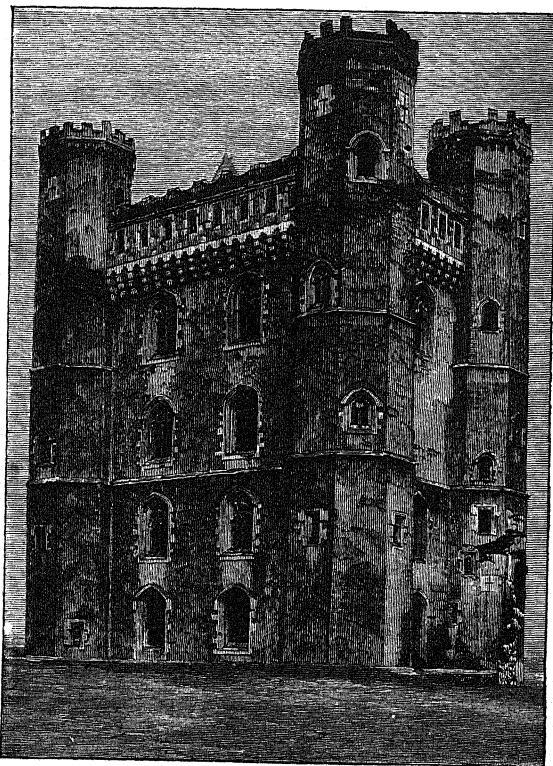
Perpendicular because

of the use it made of upright lines and flat or square panels, windows, and doors. This style, like the age that produced it, is not so original or pure as that which inspired the churches of Henry III. or Edward I.'s time, but it is very rich, impressive, and magnificent. Private houses were now built in a more durable and comfortable fashion, and even the warlike nobles gave up erecting gloomy castles for their abodes, and set up in their stead large, well-lighted, and roomy mansions, which, though following the lines of the old castles, and capable of standing a siege, were constructed with regard to the comfort of those who always lived in them rather than with the view of keeping out the enemy. A



Perpendicular Window,
Headcorn, Kent.

magnificent specimen of this type is here shown in the picture of *Tattershall Castle*, Lincolnshire, built by one of Henry VI.'s ministers. Tattershall is also



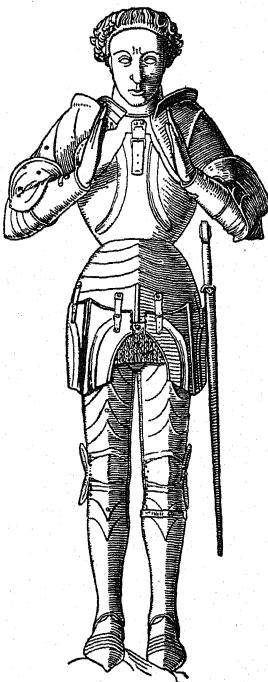
Tattershall Castle, Lincolnshire. Built between 1433 and 1455.

remarkable as one of the earliest brick buildings in this country. In earlier days our ancestors built either of wood or stone.

12. Gunpowder had been utilised for warfare during the days of Edward III. The earliest muskets were

very heavy and clumsy, and in battle men still preferred to trust to bows and arrows. But large cannon Gunpowder were already cast that could batter down and plate strong walls and castles, impregnable except by famine in an earlier age. Armour became more heavy, costly, and elaborate. Instead of the *chain mail* of earlier days, knights from Edward III.'s time onwards wore what is called *plate armour*. This consisted of solid plates of steel, buckled or riveted together, and cleverly fashioned so as to ward off blows, or turn aside arrows and bullets. Examples of plate armour are given in the print of Edward the Black Prince on page 145, and here in that of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick. But plate armour was complicated, heavy, and costly, and gradually became of little use, as firearms grew so effective that they could send bullets through any plate of iron or steel that the soldier was strong enough to bear. Nevertheless, armour was retained, and remained very elaborate until long after this period.

13. The changes in building and in the art of war foreshadowed The end of still more important the Middle movements. The Ages. period of history called the *Middle Ages* was slowly dying away, and we are now on the threshold of modern times. It was an age of discoveries, of



Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick (died 1439).

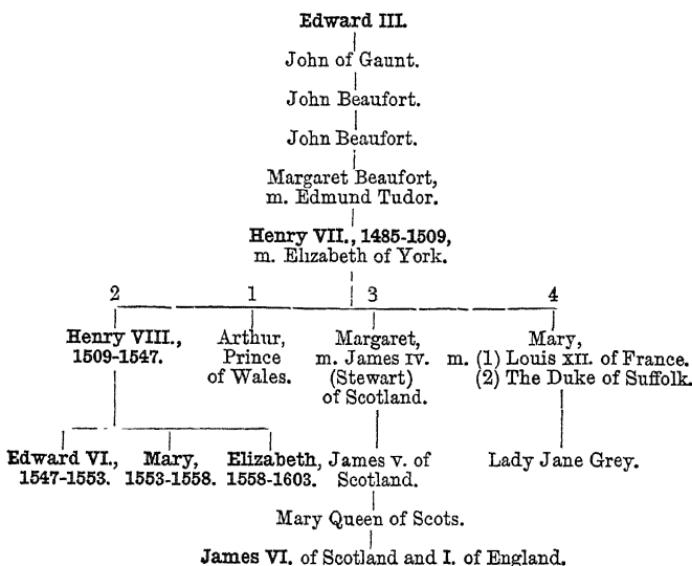
(From Monument in the Lady Chapel, St. Mary's Church, Warwick.)

new inventions, of greater love of knowledge, and a wider interest in man and nature. Before long *Christopher Columbus* discovered the New World called America. It was already the time of the *Revival of Letters*, or the *Renascence*, that is, the new birth of learning and thought. None of these new movements had as yet begun to affect England very much, but already, and especially in Italy, there was wonderful progress being made in many directions. And even in England some men began to be interested in the new movements. From the dying Middle Ages the Modern World was slowly growing.

14. One of the great inventions of these times was the discovery of *Printing*. Up to the middle of the fifteenth century the only way of multiplying books was to copy them out laboriously by hand. But so many people now wanted to read, that they grew impatient at the slowness with which *manuscript* or hand-written books were written out, and the high price which they cost. At last some shrewd Germans discovered a way of printing books by movable types, so that a large number of impressions could be taken from the same type. The result was that the price of books was suddenly cheapened, and a great stimulus was given to reading and study. In Edward iv.'s time printing was brought into England by *William Caxton*, who, having learned the art abroad, set up a press under the shadow of Westminster Abbey, from which he produced a large number of useful and beautiful books. Before long reading became much more common, and men who read soon got into the way of thinking for themselves. When men began to think for themselves, modern times were already at hand.

The invention of Printing.
William Caxton.

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



BOOK V

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, 1485-1603

CHAPTER XXI

Henry VII., 1485-1509 (Married Elizabeth of York.)

Principal Persons:

The Earl of Warwick; Lambert Simnel; Perkin Warbeck; Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Spain; Catharine of Aragon; Arthur and Henry, Princes of Wales; Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Principal Dates:

- 1485. Accession of Henry VII.
- 1487. Lambert Simnel's imposture.
- 1497. Capture of Perkin Warbeck.
- 1503. Marriage of James IV. and Margaret Tudor.
- 1509. Death of Henry VII.

1. Like Henry IV., Henry VII. found it was hard to maintain the throne that he had won so easily. A silent, reserved, cold, and selfish man, he never shone like the free-handed Edward IV. or the brilliant Richard III. But he was prudent, frugal, painstaking, and seldom wantonly cruel. He saw that England would never be prosperous again until the factions of York and Lancaster were ended. He wished to be king of the whole nation, and not merely king of a party. With this object he married *Elizabeth of York*, the daughter of Edward IV. After her brothers' dis-

Henry VII.'s
character
and claims
to the
throne.

appearance, Elizabeth became, according to Yorkist notions, heir to the throne. By this match Henry hoped to conciliate the Yorkists as well as his own Lancastrian friends. If he himself were not lawful heir, his children would be as much recognised by



Henry VII.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Yorkists as Lancastrians. Things happened exactly as Henry had foreseen. His son Henry VIII. was honoured by all as England's rightful king.

2. The Yorkists had now no leaders. Their head was Henry's wife, and the next heir, the *Earl of Warwick*, a son of the murdered Clarence, was Yorkist plots and pretenders. a close prisoner in the Tower. Having no real prince in whose name they could fight, the Yorkists set up an impostor. A pretty boy, about

twelve years old, was taken to Ireland, where the Yorkists were strong, and it was given out that he was the Earl of Warwick, who, it was said, had escaped from the Tower. In reality he was *Lambert Simnel*, a poor man's son from Oxford. In 1487 the Yorkists in



Queen Elizabeth, Consort of Henry VII.
(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Ireland crowned him as king in Dublin, and soon sent him over to England to try his fortune there. Meanwhile Henry took the real Warwick from prison and showed him to the Londoners, that all men might know that the youth from Ireland was a cheat. So it was that few English joined Simnel's army, and Henry had little trouble in defeating it. The king showed his contempt for Simnel by pardoning him and making him a turnspit in the royal kitchen.

3. Soon after a more formidable impostor arose

in *Perkin Warbeck*, a bright, attractive young man from Tournai in the Netherlands, who gave out that he was Richard, Duke of York, Warbeck. the younger of the princes supposed to have been murdered in the Tower. So well did he play his part that many believed in him, and for many years the *White Rose of England*—as Perkin was called by his friends—gave Henry a great deal of trouble. Like Simnel he first went to Ireland, where he won a large following. But he was also helped by Henry's foreign enemies, who were glad thus to weaken England. The French and the Scots both acknowledged Perkin as Richard of York. But Henry made friends with the foreigners, and persuaded them to cease supporting him. The impostor then boldly resolved to risk everything by exciting rebellion in England. In 1497 he landed in Cornwall, where the people had a little time before risen in revolt against Henry's grievous taxes. Many of the Cornishmen followed his banner, but the king's forces came down, and a battle seemed at hand. The pretender now lost heart, and ran away to a monastery, hoping that the Church would protect him. Thereupon the Cornishmen went back to their homes. Warbeck soon gave himself up to the king, who promised to spare his life. He was imprisoned in the Tower, where he made friends with the captive Warwick. Some time later both were put to death on the charge of having formed a plot to seize the Tower and upset the king's throne. With them the Yorkist party came to an end. The Wars of the Roses were at last over.

4. Henry had now put down his enemies at home, and bought off his enemies abroad. He strove by prudent Henry VII.'s marriages to make his position still more Spanish secure. The greatest princes in Europe alliance. in those days were Ferdinand, King of Aragon, and Isabella, Queen of Castile, who had by

marrying each other joined their kingdoms together to form the united kingdom of Spain. Henry sought to get Ferdinand and Isabella on his side, by faithfully following their wishes and by marrying his eldest son, *Arthur, Prince of Wales*, to their youngest daughter, *Catharine of Aragon*. However, the sickly young prince died soon after the wedding. Henry was anxious not to lose the advantages of the Spanish match, so he proposed that Catharine should marry his younger son, the future *Henry VIII.*, who was now made Prince of Wales. The marriage of a man with his brother's widow was against the law of the Church, but the Pope gave a special licence or *dispensation*, allowing the union in this particular case. Later on, great trouble arose from this match. For the moment, however, Henry got what he most wanted. Catharine remained in England, and her father still kept good friends with Henry.

5. Since the days of Edward III. Scotland had remained an independent nation, closely allied to France, and bitterly hostile to England. The weakness of England under York and Lancaster had allowed Scotland to become more powerful and prosperous. It was now ruled by kings of the *House of Stewart*, the first of whom, Robert II., who became king in 1371, owed his throne to his father's marriage with Margaret, the daughter and heiress of Robert Bruce. *James IV.*, Stewart, was now King of Scots, and in 1503 Henry VII. gave him his eldest daughter, Margaret, in marriage. Henry hoped through this match to break down the old alliance between the Scots and the French, and make the English and Scots better friends. Great things were expected from this union of the Scotch thistle with the English rose, and great things came at last, for just a hundred years later the great-grandson of James and Margaret joined together England and

The marriage of
Margaret
Tudor and
James IV. of
Scotland.

Scotland under his rule. But it was long before the English and Scots forgot their ancient enmity, and James IV. soon went back to the French alliance.

6. Henry VII. set steadily to work to build up the royal power. Lancastrian though he was, he ruled Henry VII. after the despotic fashion of Edward IV. increases the rather than in the constitutional way of the royal power. three Henrys. He summoned few Parliaments, and did not scruple to raise money by *benevolences*, saying that the law of Richard against them was not a binding law since Richard was no true king. He chose wise ministers to help him, the chief of them being *Cardinal Morton*, who was both Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury. A story is told of Morton that shows how shrewdly he drew money from the pockets of Englishmen. If Morton heard that a man was living with great pomp and show, he used to tell him 'You are spending so much money that you are surely very rich, and therefore well able to give large sums to the king.' If, however, Morton saw that a man was living in a poor fashion, he was accustomed to say, 'You must have saved a great deal of money by your thrifty ways, and therefore you can well afford to let the king have some of your savings.' This plan was called *Morton's fork*, because if one point did not touch the man, the other did. By such means Henry was able to hoard up large sums.

7. The greatest service that Henry VII. did to England was in breaking down the power of the nobles.

The destruction of the power of the barons. The Wars of the Roses had really been caused by this over-mighty influence of the baronage. The nobles not only owned

vast estates, and compelled their tenants to fight for them, but they allowed all men, who were willing to do so, to wear their badge or *livery*, and every man who wore the nobleman's livery felt bound

to support his lord against all the world, while the lord considered himself obliged to save his friends from punishment, even if the law courts passed sentences against them. Henry VII. now managed to abolish this custom. He also set up a new court called the *Star Chamber*, because it met in a room whose ceiling was painted with stars. Its special business was to keep the nobles in order. The richest barons now learned that they must obey the law like any other man.

8. Henry's policy made England quite a different country. Bit by bit men forgot their rough fighting ways, and settled down to work at their ^{The popular} trades, knowing that the king would protect ^{Tudor} them and see that they had their rights. But as the result of this, the Tudor kings became very much more powerful than our earlier monarchs. Englishmen lost some of their freedom in return for better peace and order. But in the old days only nobles and wealthy gentlemen really had power to enjoy their liberty. Under the new system the very poorest could enjoy the blessings of order. Yet England had to pay a heavy price for what she obtained from the Tudors. Before long the kings found out that they could do almost what they liked, and very soon they began to do things that were by no means good for the country. At first this result was not felt, for most of the Tudors, though high-handed and arbitrary, did what they thought was for the best, and remained popular because they were good Englishmen and very like their subjects, both in their virtues and in their vices. Later on, however, the English had to endure much from their kings. It was only after a hard struggle that the people were able to win back their liberty.

CHAPTER XXII

Henry VIII., 1509-1547

(Married (1) Catharine of Aragon; (2) Anne Boleyn; (3) Jane Seymour; (4) Anne of Cleves; (5) Catharine Howard; (6) Catharine Parr)

Principal Persons :

Cardinal Wolsey; James IV., King of Scots; Louis XII. and Francis I., Kings of France; Ferdinand, King of Spain; Charles V., Emperor and King of Spain; Pope Clement VII.; Cardinal Campeggio; Martin Luther; Sir Thomas More; Bishop Fisher; Archbishop Crammer; Thomas Cromwell.

Principal Dates :

- 1509. Accession of Henry VIII.
- 1513. Battles of Flodden Field and the Spurs.
- 1517. Martin Luther begins the Reformation.
- 1520. Field of the Cloth of Gold.
- 1521. Henry's second War with France.
- 1529. Fall of Wolsey.
- 1534. Separation of England from Rome.
- 1535. Union of England and Wales.
- 1536. The Pilgrimage of Grace.
- 1536-9. Suppression of the monasteries.
- 1540. Fall of Cromwell.
- 1547. Death of Henry VIII.

1. Henry VIII. now became king at the age of eighteen. The tall, strong, handsome prince was a character of very different sort of man from his cold and Henry VIII. cautious father. He loved display as much as Henry VII. had loved saving, and he soon scattered his father's treasure in giving magnificent feasts and entertainments. But with all his eagerness for

amusing himself, Henry VIII. worked hard at the government of his kingdom, being much fonder of



Henry VIII. (From a Painting by Holbein about 1536.)

power and of having his own way than of anything else in the world. He made himself popular by his

pleasant hearty manner, and by seeming to wish to do what the people themselves most wanted. But as time went on Englishmen began to find out that the friendly and outspoken young king was selfish, cruel, and hard-hearted. As he grew old Henry became more and more brutal. But even at the last he still had something grand about him. If he was fierce like a lion, he had the courage and dignity of the king of beasts. He was one of the greatest of all our kings, and with all his faults did much good to England.

2. Henry carried on his father's policy of increasing the authority of the king and of making all men, ^{Cardinal} however great, obey the law. But he was ^{Wolsey.} not content to go on with simply treading in Henry VII.'s footsteps. He wished to show that he was stronger and cleverer than his father. Henry desired to make it clear to Europe that England had again become a nation to be feared. His mind was filled with big schemes for extending his power, and he soon felt the need of a wise and prudent minister to help him. Such a minister he found in a young priest named *Thomas Wolsey*. The son of an Ipswich merchant, Wolsey went to the University of Oxford, where he took his degree so young that he was called 'the boy bachelor.' But he loved to get on in the world better than to remain at the university studying books. He soon found his way to court, where his cleverness, hard work, and desire to please attracted King Henry's fancy. Before long, Wolsey was made Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of York, and for nearly twenty years he was his master's most trusted servant. He was not in every way a good man, but he was certainly a great one. But many of the worst things he did were done by him simply to please his master. He was proud and haughty, and lived in a more

expensive way than even the greatest nobles. But he was merciful and just to the poor, and built magnificent schools and colleges, believing that it would be better for the land if there were more scholars and more learning in it.

3. Wolsey tried to win for England a stronger posi-



Cardinal Wolsey.

(From an Original Miniature belonging to the
Hon. Sir Spencer Ponsonby, G.C.B.)

tion in Europe. During the Wars of the Roses, England had ceased to exercise any influence on the Continent, and Henry VII. had not been able to do much to restore her position.

However, he made a firm alliance with Spain, which his son, who had married the Spanish king's daughter, continued. The great rival of Spain in Europe was France, now ruled by Louis XII. In 1512 Henry joined his father-in-law in war against the French.

4. In the struggle which now followed, Henry won

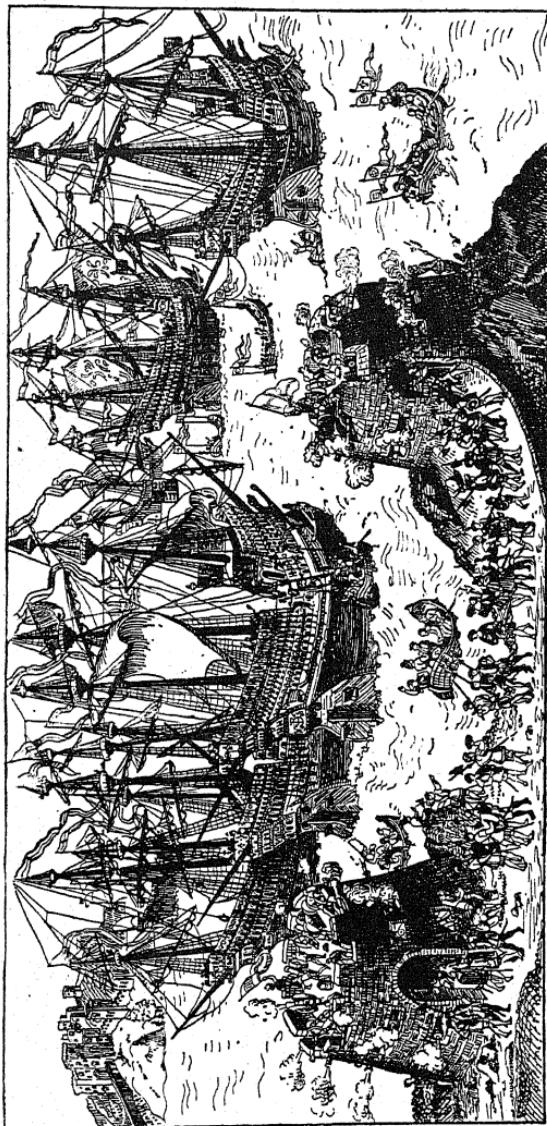
Henry VIII.'s
foreign
policy.

some notable battles against both these enemies. One ^{The Battles of the Spurs and Flodden.} fight against the French was called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because it was said that the French used their spurs to make their horses run away from the English, much more than they used their swords. But the most bloody battle of that time was the battle of *Flodden Field*, in which the King of Scots, James IV., was slain with very many of his nobles. Though James was Henry VIII.'s brother-in-law, he broke from the English alliance established by his marriage, and renewed the traditional friendship between Scotland and France. So Henry had to fight the Scots as well as the French. But at Flodden the Scots were so badly beaten that it was long before they were strong enough to trouble Henry any more. Both these battles took place in the year 1513. Soon after peace was made.

5. Louis XII. soon died, and was succeeded by his brilliant cousin, Francis I., who reigned just as long as ^{The rivalry of Francis I. and Charles V.} Henry himself. A little later, old Ferdinand of Spain died also. His place was taken by his grandson, Charles of Austria, who in 1519 became the Emperor Charles V. Charles ruled over the Netherlands and Austria as well as over Spain, and Francis I. was very jealous of him. The two princes were at once anxious to wage war one against the other, hoping thus to make it clear who was the first king in Europe.

6. Francis and Charles both sought Henry's alliance, and Henry strove for a time to hold a sort of balance between them. He held interviews with ^{The Field of the Cloth of Gold.} both. His meeting with Francis took place near Calais. It was conducted in such a stately fashion, and so much money was spent on it, that men called the place of meeting the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. The picture on page 201 shows Henry setting forth in state to hold the interview in 1520.

Nothing having come of it, Henry made an alliance



The Embarkation of Henry VIII. from Dover, 1520.
(From the Original Painting at Hampton Court.)

with Charles, and in 1521 went to war against I

but did not win much glory in the struggle. However, Charles finally defeated the French, and thus made himself the most powerful of European sovereigns.

7. Despite occasional triumphs, Henry did not get much good by his wars. He had hoped to be able to win-

Wolsey blamed for Henry's failures. famous victories like those of Edward III. and Henry V. But his actual successes were much less than he expected. More-

over, he spent so much money on raising soldiers that he had to ask Parliament for heavy taxes. This the people did not like. Before long many accused Wolsey of wasting vast sums on useless wars, when it would have been much fairer to have blamed Henry himself. We should not, however, forget that Wolsey's foreign policy once more made England an important power in Europe. For a long time foreigners had almost forgotten that there was such a place as England. There was no longer any danger of our country being ignored. But in their efforts to make England play a great figure, neither Henry nor Wolsey thought much of the justice of their cause.

8. Soon after he came to the throne Henry married his brother Arthur's widow, *Catharine of Aragon*, and lived with her happily for about seven-
The divorce of Catharine of Aragon. teen years. But he then grew tired of her, and fell in love with a giddy, foolish court beauty named *Anne Boleyn*. He soon became eager to get Catharine divorced so that he might be free to marry Anne. He pretended that his conscience pricked him for entering into a marriage that was against the law of the Church; and which had only been made lawful in his particular case by special leave having been granted him by one of the Popes. Now, however, he went to another Pope, *Clement VII.*, and asked him to declare that the former Pope had made a mistake in giving him permission to marry his brother's widow. This, however,

Clement VII. was afraid to do, though, as Henry was a very powerful king, he long pretended to be wishful to give him what he wanted. In order to gain time, Clement appointed Wolsey and an Italian Cardinal, named *Campeggio*, to try the case. This pleased Henry, who thought that Wolsey was sure to be on his side. But before the two Cardinals had made a decision,



Catharine of Aragon.
(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

the Pope took away their power from them and ordered that the case should be tried all over again at Rome.

9. This made Henry very angry. In 1529 he attacked Wolsey for having helped the Pope to deceive him, and drove him from power. At first he allowed Wolsey to retire to York. But before long he accused him of being a traitor, and ordered him to go to London to be tried. It was the dead of

winter, and Wolsey was already an old man and broken in health. On his way he fell ill and was forced to stop his journey at Leicester. There, a few days later, he died. The last words he spoke were, 'Had I but served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have deserted me in my old age.'

10. Henry was still eager to procure the divorce. He saw that his only chance of getting the Pope to agree to it was by threatening him. ^{Beginning of the Re-} The Pope's authority was no longer what it once had been. Since 1517 *Martin Luther* had been preaching in Germany that there was nothing about the power of the Pope in the Bible, and that there were many things in the Church that sadly wanted reforming. The movement thus started was called the *Reformation*, and soon had the result of breaking up Europe into different religious bodies. Those who remained faithful to the Pope and the old faith were called *Roman Catholics*. Those who followed Luther were called *Protestants*, because they protested against the Pope and his teaching. They soon became so numerous that most of northern Europe fell away altogether from obedience to the Pope. At the first outbreak of the Reformation, England and Henry remained true to the old faith. Henry actually wrote a book against Luther. This book so pleased the Pope that he ordered that the English kings should receive the title of *Defender of the Faith*. This name our kings and queens have kept ever since, and it still can be read on our coins.

11. When Henry pressed Clement VII. hard on the divorce question, it was pretty clear that the Pope and the king would soon cease to be good friends. As Clement continued to hold out, Henry called together a Parliament and

passed laws through it, which gradually took away all the power of the Pope in England. But the Pope was still as obstinate as ever, so that the great result of the divorce question was the separation of England from Rome. The most important of the Acts of Parliament which carried this out was the Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534, which declared that the king was *Supreme Head of the English Church*, and thus set up what was called the *Royal Supremacy*. Having thus decided that the Pope had no right to exercise authority in England, Henry persuaded the Archbishop of Canterbury, *Thomas Cranmer*, to grant his divorce. He then married Anne Boleyn. The ill-treated Catharine was forced to submit. She died soon after, protesting to the last that she was Henry's lawful wife.

12. Most Englishmen agreed with Henry in throwing off the Pope's power. But there were a few bold men who were daring enough to incur the king's wrath by refusing to change their faith at his bidding. Chief among these friends of the Pope was *Sir Thomas More*, a famous

The Royal
Supremacy
and Sir
Thomas
More.

lawyer and writer, who had been made Lord Chancellor after Wolsey's fall, but had soon thrown up his office in disgust and gone back into private life. Up to this time Henry had professed to be a very great friend of More's. He not only sought his advice, but often paid him sudden visits to his house, where he would walk round the garden with his arm put lovingly round More's neck. But, even then, More did not trust him. 'If my head,' he said, 'would win for the king a castle in France, it would not fail to go.' But More, though he had been anxious to make the state of the Church better, saw how much there was that was good in the old ways. He was very glad, therefore, to be released from the king's service, and to live quietly with his family

Henry

would not allow this, and grew wrathful that an old minister of his should venture to go against his will. He called upon More to take an oath that Anne Boleyn was lawful queen, and to deny that the Pope had any power in England. More knew that if he refused he would soon be a dead man, but he never hesitated as to what was right. He was at once shut



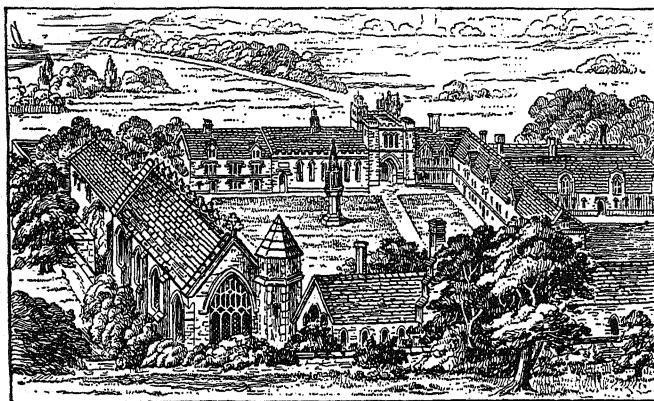
Sir Thomas More.

(From an Original Portrait painted by Holbein in 1527.)

up in the Tower, and soon condemned to death as a traitor. He went to his doom so calmly that he made jests on the scaffold. After he had laid his head upon the block, he shifted his position for a moment to put his beard out of the way of the headsman's axe. 'It is a pity,' he said, 'that it should be cut. It hath not committed treason.' Other good men followed his noble example of obeying their conscience rather than the king's will. The chief of these was *John Fisher*,

Bishop of Rochester, the best and most learned of all the English bishops. But Henry trampled on all opposition, so that before long no man dared deny that he was Supreme Head of the Church.

13. A still greater change soon followed. Since the beginnings of the Christian faith in England, a great many men and women had taken vows to give up the world for the sake of religion. ^{The} monasteries. They had joined together in little societies, in order to live far from the bustle and confusion of ordinary life. They had nothing of their own ; they



Bermondsey Abbey.
(Showing the Monastic Buildings.)

were not allowed to marry, and they were bound to obey the abbot or abbess, as the chief of each house was called. They spent their time in prayer, alms-giving, meditation, and study. The buildings in which they lived were called *monasteries*, or *abbeys*, or houses of religion, and those who lived in them were called *monks* and *nuns*. We have seen how in the old days the best and holiest of men gladly entered the monasteries, and we have seen what good lives

these monks lived, and how much their example did to promote religion and learning in England.

14. By this time the spirit of the monks had become faint. A layman like More could live as holy ^{The suppression of the monasteries.} a life in the world as a monk in his monastery. Moreover, there were so many monasteries that there were not enough men of the right sort to fill them. The wealth of many abbeys had tempted the monks into luxury. Many were idle and careless, and some of them led wicked lives. Thus it was that the monasteries had lost popularity, while their lands tempted the greedy, and their weakness made them easy to attack. Henry was eager to get money, and it now struck him that it would be a fine plan to put an end to them all, and keep their lands for himself and his friends. He was always clever in finding good excuses for anything that he wanted to do. He now pretended that the monks were idle, corrupt, and useless, and that even the good ones were his enemies, as they were, as far as they dared, friends of the Pope and enemies of the Royal Supremacy. He now called to his help a greedy, cruel, self-seeking minister named *Thomas Cromwell*, an old dependant of Wolsey, who, after his master's fall, entered the king's service. With Cromwell's aid Henry abolished the monasteries altogether. The smaller houses went first in 1536, but the large ones suffered the same fate within the three following years.

15. The monks' vast estates now went to the king. But Henry kept very little for himself, selling much of ^{Results of the suppression.} the land in a hurry at low prices, and giving a great deal away to his ministers and favourites, whom he was unable to reward out of his own resources. Ruthless acts marked everywhere the destruction of the monasteries. The holy places where the people had so long worshipped God

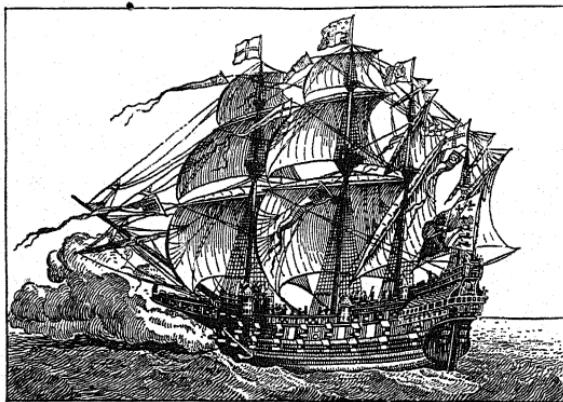
were profaned. The abbey churches lay roofless and robbed of their rich ornaments. Perhaps some courtier built a fine new house for himself out of the ruins. Sometimes the abbey was pulled down to build cottages or to mend roads. Sometimes it was left to gradually moulder away into those ruins, which still show us how beautiful the abbeys once were. We can see a good example of this in the picture here given of *Fountains Abbey*, near Ripon in Yorkshire, one of the



Fountains Abbey.
(Showing the East End of the Church.)

most famous and interesting ruins in England. However, about half of the monks' property was used for public purposes. Some was employed to increase the number of bishops, and some abbeys were kept to be cathedrals and parish churches. A good deal of money was also used to build fortifications to protect England from invasion, and fine new ships of war. The most famous of Henry's battle-ships was the *Great Harry*, the picture of which gives us a good idea of what the ships of the time were like. The flags floating at the mast are the St. George's Cross and the Royal Standard of England.

16. As much of the abbey spoils was spent on enriching Henry's friends as in promoting worthy objects. The results were by no means all for good. The monks had been very easy of Grace. and indulgent to their tenants. But the new landlords of the abbey lands were, as a rule, greedier and harder than the monks had been. They raised rents and took away from the poor the use of



The *Great Harry*.

the *common lands*, on which everybody had been allowed to turn his cattle and sheep to graze. Before long, old-fashioned men lamented the fall of the abbeys, and in 1536 the Yorkshire men even rose in revolt to bring the monks back. Their rising was called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. But it was as foolish to withstand the tempest as to seek to change the will of the king. The rebellion was easily suppressed.

17. Cromwell now persuaded Henry to make other changes in religion, such as breaking down holy images, and reducing the number of holy days. But the most important thing now done was the publication of an *English translation of the Bible* by Cranmer. In 1538 the king

The English
Bible.

ordered that a copy of this Bible should stand open in every parish church, that any one who liked could read it. It was believed that this would make the people more open to receive the new teaching.

18. Henry was now drifting towards Luther and the Protestants, but he still professed to be a good Catholic who steered a middle way between Popery and the new faith, and hated Protestants as heretics. Besides hanging and cutting into quarters all those *Papists*, or friends of the Pope, who denied the Royal Supremacy, he sought out and burnt to death at the stake the followers of Luther. But under the influence of Cromwell and Cranmer, Henry was making bishops of men whom he would have burnt a few years before, and it looked as if he would soon become a regular Protestant.

19. Hideous deeds within his own household now soured Henry's temper. He had soon grown tired of Anne Boleyn, and had ruthlessly cut off her head. The very day after her execution he married a third wife, *Jane Seymour*.

The fall of Cromwell.
She was the mother of Edward, Henry's only son, and died soon after he was born. For some time Henry remained a widower, but Cromwell now persuaded him to marry a German princess, *Anne of Cleves*, whose kinsfolk were among Luther's chief supporters. Cromwell hoped thus to make friends with the German Protestants. But his plan proved his ruin. Anne of Cleves was so ugly and stupid that Henry divorced her at once. He accused Cromwell of treason, and in 1540 sent him to the scaffold. Like Wolsey, Cromwell had served Henry only too slavishly, and it was absurd to accuse him of being unfaithful to the king.

20. With Cromwell's fall Henry's itch for change died away. The king was now content with having

got rid of the Pope and the monks, and suffered the
The last Church to go on with little further refor-
years of mation for the rest of his life. His health was
Henry VIII. now broken, and his temper more fierce and
brutal than ever. He still beheaded Papists and burnt
Protestants. He still sent to the scaffold all whom
he believed were plotting against him, and took no
pains at all to prove that they had broken the law.
He married two more wives after Anne of Cleves'
divorce. The first of these, *Catharine Howard*, was
soon beheaded like Anne Boleyn, but she had led so
wicked a life that the king had some excuse. Henry's
sixth wife was a lively young widow named *Catharine Parr*, who had the good luck to survive him. At last
the king died in 1547, and after him came such a
period of trouble that before long men longed to be
ruled once more by the grim tyrant, who, with all his
violence, had given England peace and strong rule.

21. Some other notable things happened in Henry VIII.'s time. The king was anxious to become supreme
Scotland. lord over all the British islands, and was the

first sovereign after Edward I. to devote
much pains to secure this object. He failed altogether
to make England friendly with Scotland, since he could
not resist plundering and devastating Scotland whenever
he had the chance. The result was that the Scots
remained in alliance with France and continued to
Ireland. uphold the Pope. Henry did something

to make Ireland more peaceful and more
closely connected with England. Dropping the old
title of Lord of Ireland, he was the first English king
who called himself King of Ireland. He broke down
the power of the great Norman house of Fitzgerald
and strove to win over the chief men, Normans and
Irish alike, by sharing with them the spoils of the
Irish monasteries. For a moment it seemed as if
Henry had succeeded in making himself real master

of Ireland, but his children afterwards found that they had to do most of the work over again. But Henry's greatest success was with Wales, which since Edward I.'s time had been dependent on England, but without forming a part of it. In 1536 Henry united Wales, both the Principality and the Marches, with England, giving both countries equal laws and privileges. He divided the Marches of Wales (see map on p. 112) into counties, and added these to the older Welsh shires, set up in the Principality of Wales by Edward I. Thus the whole of Wales and the March was divided into thirteen counties exactly like those of England. Moreover, Henry VIII. gave these thirteen Welsh shires and the boroughs contained in them the privilege of sending members to the Parliament at London. At the same time he put an end to the special position which Cheshire had enjoyed as a Palatine county, since the Norman period, and which had made it, like Wales and its March, separate from the ordinary parts of England.

CHAPTER XXIII

•Edward VI., 1547-1553

Principal Persons :

Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset ; Mary Queen of Scots ; John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland ; Archbishop Cranmer ; Latimer, Bishop of Worcester ; Ridley, Bishop of London ; the Lady Jane Grey.

Principal Dates :

- 1547. Accession of Edward VI.
- 1547-1549. Protectorate of Somerset.
- 1549-1553. Rule of Northumberland.
- 1553. Death of Edward VI.

1. Edward VI., the only son of Henry VIII., was a boy of ten, so his mother's brother, *Edward Seymour*, Duke of Somerset, became Lord Protector. Somerset was well-meaning and active, but neither wise nor prudent. He tried to do too much at once, and as a result did nothing properly. He strove to carry on Henry VIII.'s policy of joining together England and Scotland. To effect this he wished to marry the young king to his cousin, *Mary Queen of Scots*, who had been a queen since she was a baby, and was the grand-daughter of James IV. and of Margaret Tudor. But he did not take the right way to effect this. He led an army into Scotland, won a victory at *Pinkie*, near Edinburgh, and burnt and pillaged all south-eastern Scotland. Angry at this rough wooing, the Scots sent their queen to France, where she was brought up to be a good Frenchwoman

The
Protector
Somerset
defeats the
Scots.

of Somerset was well-meaning and active, but neither wise nor prudent. He tried to do too much at once, and as a result did nothing properly.

and Catholic, and where, when she grew up, she was married to the French king's eldest son. In consequence of this England and Scotland long remained bad friends.

. 2. Somerset thought that Henry VIII. had spared too



King Edward VI.

much of the old Church, and, following Cranmer's advice, desired to carry out further changes. He broke down the images of saints, and allowed the clergy to marry. But the most important thing he did was to put an end to the old fashion of saying the services of the Church in Latin. Instead of the Latin Mass, Somerset introduced an

Somerset
furthers the
Reformation.

English Book of Common Prayer in 1549. This is called the *First Prayer Book of Edward VI*. Most Englishmen were not prepared for so many novelties. They were the more angry at them since some of the reformers only used religion as a cloak to their greed. Many of the Council eagerly enriched themselves with the Church property. Though better than most of the Councillors, Somerset pulled down churches to build for himself a new house in the Strand in London. This was in the same place as the present *Somerset House*, though that was set up long afterwards.

3. In 1549 there were two rebellions. One was in *Devonshire*, where the people rose in revolt against the new English service, which they said was like a Christmas game. The other was in *Norfolk*, where the poor took arms against the landlords, who had robbed them of the common lands on which they used to turn their sheep. Somerset was too weak to deal properly with these rebellions. The Council drove him from the protectorate. Afterwards he was accused of treason, because he tried to get back power, and was beheaded.

4. *John Dudley, Earl of Warwick*, a fierce and pitiless soldier, who had put down the rebels with a strong hand, succeeded to Somerset's power. He made himself Duke of Northumberland, and pretended to be very anxious to reform the Church still farther. But he had no real zeal for Protestantism, and merely sought to get the Protestants on his side and despoil the Church. The extreme men said that Somerset's Prayer Book did not go far enough. To please them Northumberland issued what is called King Edward's *Second Prayer Book*, which is much more like the one used at present than the first Prayer Book. We must not think that all who favoured the new ways were self-seekers like North-

The revolts
of 1549.

The rule of
North-
umberland.

umberland. There were very pious and honourable men among them, such as the sturdy preacher *Hugh Latimer*, once Bishop of Worcester, and *John Ridley*, the scholarly Bishop of London.

5. Edward was a forward, serious-minded boy, very anxious to promote the Protestant cause. But he had wretched health, and died of consumption before he was sixteen. On his deathbed Northumberland persuaded him that the succession of his elder sister Mary, the daughter of Catharine of Aragon, would be dangerous to religion, and induced him to leave the throne to his Protestant cousin, *Lady Jane Grey*. Lady Jane was a good and pious girl, more fond of study than of amusing herself; but she was the wife of *Lord Guildford Dudley*, one of Northumberland's sons, and no one wished that, through her nominal rule, the greedy duke should remain in power. When Edward died, Northumberland proclaimed his daughter-in-law queen. But Jane only reigned ten days. Everybody saw that the Lady Mary had the better title, and Northumberland himself was forced to give up the struggle. Mary now became queen amidst universal rejoicing, and Northumberland was beheaded.

The death of
Edward, and
the attempt
to make
Lady Jane
Grey queen.

CHAPTER XXIV

Mary, 1553-1558 (Married Philip II., King of Spain)

Principal Persons:

Charles V., the Emperor; Philip II. of Spain; Sir Thomas Wyatt; Cranmer; Ridley; and Latimer.

Principal Dates:

- 1553. Accession of Mary.
- 1556. Cranmer burnt.
- 1558. Loss of Calais; death of Mary.

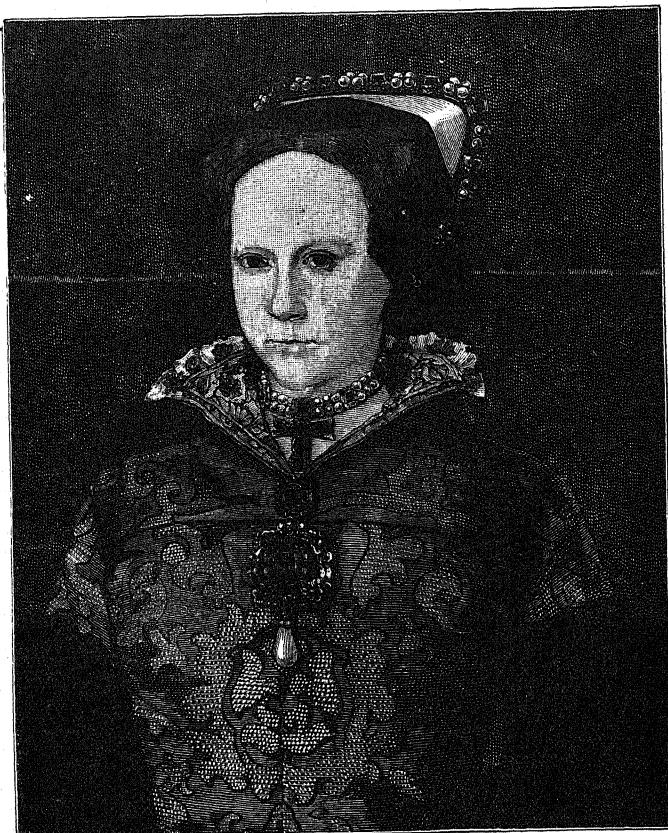
1. Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, had lived an unhappy and solitary life.

Character of Queen Mary. She was strongly in favour of the old religion, and hated the changes brought about by her father and brother. She was brave, energetic, strong-minded, and honourable, but weak health and misfortune had soured her temper and made her nervous and suspicious. Her zeal for her faith made her cruel against the Protestants, but in other ways she was less hard than either her father or her sister Elizabeth. She was the first woman who ever reigned over England.

2. Mary at once got rid of the religious changes made under Edward VI. She brought back the Latin

The restoration of the old religion. Mass, forced the clergy to give up either their wives or their livings, and prevented all Protestant teaching. The result was that the state of religion became what it had been at the end of the reign of Henry VIII. Those who

refused to follow the queen's religion were put into prison or fled into exile. But most Englishmen were willing that the old customs should be brought back.



Queen Mary Tudor.

(From a Painting by Lucas de Heere, dated 1554,
belonging to the Society of Antiquaries.)

3. Mary also wished to make England and Spain as friendly as they had been before Henry VIII.'s religious

changes, to bring back the power of the Pope, and ^{Mary marries} to restore the monks and nuns. She found, ^{Philip of} however, that many who approved of her ^{Spain.} first acts were opposed to these desires. But she had a strong will, and never flinched in carrying out what she thought was right. First of all she succeeded in making friends with her cousin, the *Emperor Charles V.*, the most powerful prince in Europe. Before long she married Charles's eldest son, Philip, who a little later became *Philip II.* of Spain. The match was not popular. There was a rebellion against it headed by *Sir Thomas Wyatt*, but it was soon put down. The revolt frightened Mary into sterner courses. She cut off the head of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, whom up to now she had allowed to live on in prison. At one time the queen shut up her sister Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, in the Tower. But Mary was not happy in the marriage that she had sacrificed so much to bring about. Philip wedded her simply to get England on his side in a war that he was carrying on against France. When he had obtained his purpose he neglected her, and made her very miserable.

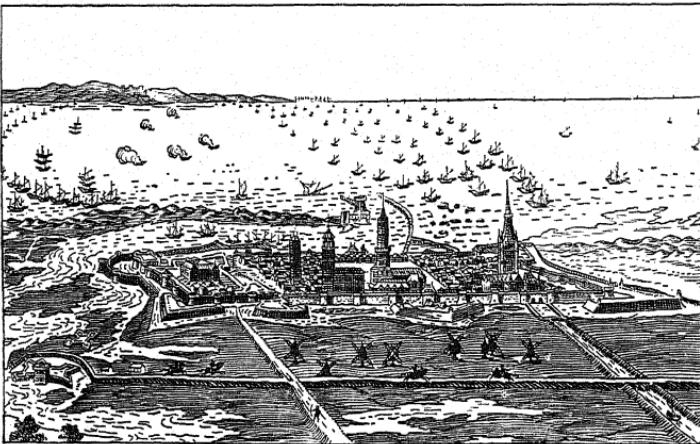
4. Mary now persuaded her Parliament to pass a law reviving the power of the Pope in England, and to ^{The restora-} renew the law of Henry IV. by which ^{tion of the} heretics were to be burnt alive. She thus ^{Pope's} won all the things for which she had been ^{authority.} striving, save the re-establishment of the monasteries. She tried hard to bring back the monks, but her nobles were afraid that, if the abbeys were restored, they might be forced to yield up the monastic lands that Henry VIII. had given them. They succeeded in preventing her carrying out her purpose. Indeed, they would not allow the Pope's authority to be acknowledged once more until he had promised that he would not insist on the monks getting back their estates.

5. Mary now began to persecute those Protestants who refused to give up their faith. Many were thrown into prison, and during her short reign over three hundred Protestants were ^{The Marian} martyrs. burnt at the stake for no other crime than their religion. Most of these were simple clergymen, tradesmen, and workmen, who gladly laid down their lives for their creed. Many touching stories have been told of their sufferings, and their death did more to win converts to the new faith than all the laws that Henry VIII. and Edward VI. had passed in its favour. In earlier days it had been the interest of many greedy men to pretend that they wanted to reform the Church. But all these self-seekers were now attending Mass and praying for the Pope. The true reformers now showed that Protestantism could inspire in its disciples the highest courage and self-sacrifice.

6. Conspicuous among the Protestant martyrs was Archbishop Cranmer. There is little to admire in his life, for he had always done what the king or the great lords told him, and of Cranmer, his divorcing Mary's mother was but the ^{The deaths of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer.} first of a series of mean acts. But he was not so much a bad man as a weak scholar, without the courage or the strong will that makes a man great in action. Almost to the last he was timid. He tried to save his life by giving up his opinions. But his submission profited him nothing. Mary was resolved to be revenged upon the man who had divorced her mother, and ordered him to be executed. At the last moment Cranmer's better nature triumphed. He ended his life bravely, lamenting the weakness that had led him to renounce his faith, and declaring that he died a Protestant. As the flames were gathering around him, he thrust into the fire his right hand, with which he

had signed his recantation, saying, 'This hand hath offended.' Among the other witnesses to the Protestant faith were Hugh Latimer, the most lovable of the Protestant teachers, and Ridley, the learned Bishop of London. These two perished together at Oxford, where Cranmer also suffered. As the fire was being lighted, old Latimer cried to his companion, 'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.'

7. We must not blame Mary too harshly for these cruel deeds. In those days it was thought by everybody that it was the duty of the ruler to put heretics to death; and our notion that the best way to get at the truth is to allow every man to think and worship as he pleases, was



Calais in the Sixteenth Century.

hardly known. But Mary herself was very wretched. She saw that, despite all her efforts, Protestantism was still a power. To please her husband she went to war with the French. In the course of it the

French swooped down suddenly on Calais and captured it. Mary brooded bitterly over this loss. 'When I die,' said she, 'you will find Calais graven upon my heart.' Her health broke down, and in 1558 she died, miserable and dispirited, knowing that her reign had been a failure, and that her sister, Elizabeth would undo all her work as soon as she was in her tomb.

CHAPTER XXV

*Elizabeth, 1558-1603

Principal Persons :

William Cecil, Lord Burghley; Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester; the Earl of Essex; Lord Mountjoy; Mary Queen of Scots; Francis II., King of France; Philip II. of Spain; John Calvin; John Knox; Henry Lord Darnley; the Earl of Bothwell; James VI., King of Scots; Anthony Babington; William, Prince of Orange; Sir Philip Sidney; Sir John Hawkins; Sir Francis Drake; Sir Walter Raleigh; Lord Howard of Effingham; William Shakespeare; Edmund Spenser; Richard Hooker; Francis Bacon.

Principal Dates :

- 1558. Accession of Elizabeth.
- 1561. Mary Stewart returns to Scotland.
- 1568. Mary Stewart escapes to England.
- 1569. Revolt of the Northern Catholics.
- 1570. The Pope excommunicates Elizabeth.
- 1572. The Revolt of the Dutch from Spain.
- 1577. Drake begins his voyage round the world.
- 1586. Babington's Plot.
- 1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
- 1588. Defeat of the Armada.
- 1601. Execution of Essex.
- 1603. Conquest of Ireland completed, and death of Elizabeth.

1. Elizabeth, the new queen, was a true daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. She was good-looking, robust, vigorous, and hard-working. She spoke several languages, and was proud of her skill in dancing, hunting, and riding. She could play the king as well as her father, and her genial manner won for her a warm place

in her subjects' hearts. She loved power so well that she made up her mind never to share her throne with a husband. Like Henry VIII., she was coarse and un-



Queen Elizabeth.

scrupulous, and she never hesitated to tell lies. She was careful and almost mean in most of her expenses, but she never minded spending money on her dresses, her amusements, and her favourites. She was vain

and selfish, and found it hard to make up her mind in little things, but in great matters she showed rare strength and firmness of purpose. She reigned over England for more than forty-five years, and all through this long period she always followed the same policy. This policy, moreover, was really her own, though she had much help from her faithful minister, *William Cecil, Lord Burghley*. She was the greatest of England's queens, though she was not a very good or attractive woman. She had wonderful courage, and never lost faith in England or in herself. Though she lived in trying times, her reign was a magnificent success.

2. The first thing was to settle the future of the Church. Elizabeth had seen how both Edward VI.

The
Elizabethan
settlement
of religion. and Mary had failed because each of them, though in different ways, took up too extreme a line. She made up her mind to

go back as far as she could to the middle course of Henry VIII. With this object she persuaded Parliament to pass a new *Act of Supremacy*, which revived the headship of the Crown over the Church, and once more renounced the rule of the Pope. She looked on the Pope as a foreign prince, and did not see why a foreigner should have any power over England. But Elizabeth soon found a great difficulty in her way. Many of the old supporters of her father had been so much frightened at the excesses of Edward's reign that they had gone over to Mary's policy, and were therefore unwilling to uphold Elizabeth's supremacy over the Church. She was forced therefore to join hands with the Protestants, whose leaders, now back from exile, were anxious to carry out a thorough reform. To please these she restored the English Prayer Book of Edward VI., allowed the clergy once more to marry, and drew up the *Thirty-Nine Articles*, which were a list of the chief doctrines of the Protestants.

3. Elizabeth was careful not to go too far. Some of the exiles had lived when abroad at Geneva, where the great French Protestant, *John Calvin*, had set up a thoroughly reformed Protestant Church. On their return they wanted to make the Church of England like the Church of Geneva. They disliked bishops, set forms of prayer, elaborate ceremonies, and the wearing of a special dress by the clergy. They were called *Puritans* because they thought that they were making the Church more pure. At first they supported Elizabeth, thinking that she would, like Edward vi., bring about further changes. But Elizabeth soon let it be understood that the settlement she had made was not to be further tampered with. Then the Puritans began to grumble, and many of the Puritan clergy refused to conform to the ceremonies ordered by the Prayer Book.

4. Elizabeth insisted that her subjects should go regularly to church, and that the services of the Church should be carried on in the way that she ordered. The Puritans were quite willing to attend church, but they wished to worship there after the Puritan fashion. This Elizabeth would not allow, and before long she drove out of their livings some of the Puritan clergy who had refused to wear surplices when reading prayers. Some of these ejected clergy formed congregations of their own. They were called *Separatists* because they separated from the Church, or *Independents*, because they taught that each individual congregation ought to be an independent church ruling itself. They were the first *Protestant Dissenters*. They were not, however, numerous, and were a good deal persecuted. Most of the Puritans remained in the Church, though they were very discontented.

The queen
and the
Puritans.

5. Elizabeth was much more hostile to the Roman

The
Separatists
or Independents.

Catholics than to the Puritans. She turned out nearly all Mary's bishops and put Protestants in their places. She ordered all the Roman Catholics to attend the Protestant churches, and heavily fined those who refused. Such Catholics were called *Popish Recusants*, and bit by bit their lot became a very hard one.

6. Elizabeth had as much trouble abroad as at home. She soon ended the war with France even though she had to give up Calais to get peace. But after this England and France remained on very bad terms. Luckily, Philip of Spain was jealous of France, and for this reason he was obliged to support Elizabeth, though she had put down the Catholic worship in England, of which he was so zealous a champion. But he had no love for England, and only upheld Elizabeth because he was afraid of the French. There was always a danger lest France and Spain should join together against England. But fortunately this never happened.

7. The ill-will of France for England grew worse when a new king, *Francis II.*, arose, who had married

Mary Queen of Scots. Mary claimed to be the lawful queen of England. This claim

was dangerous not only because she was supported by her husband, but because the Catholics looked upon Elizabeth as having no right to rule England, since her mother, Anne Boleyn, had married Henry VIII. during Catharine of Aragon's lifetime, and the Pope held that Catharine, and Catharine only, had been Henry's lawful wife.

8. While Mary was in France great changes took place in Scotland. The Scots, who had hitherto been Catholics, now suddenly became eager and extreme Protestants. Led by the famous preacher, *John Knox*, the Scots threw off

the rule of the Pope and the bishops. By John Knox's advice the Scots set up a Protestant Church which exactly copied the fashion of the Church at Geneva.



Mary Queen of Scots.

(After the Picture by P. Oudrey in the National Portrait Gallery.)

This Church was called *Presbyterian* because it was governed by little councils of *presbyters* or elders, who took the place of the bishops of the old Church.

The Church of Scotland was thus made just what the English Puritans wanted to make the Church of England. Moreover, the Scots paid no attention to the efforts of their queen to prevent their becoming Protestants. They became now such hot Protestants that they could not remain allies of the Catholic French. A common religion now began to bind together the English and the Scots, who, ever since the days of Edward I., had been bitter enemies.

9. Soon after this the French king, Mary's husband, died. Mary was clever, ambitious, and energetic, as well as very beautiful and charming. She returns to Scotland. She did not care to go on living in France after Scotland. she had ceased to be the first lady in the country. So in 1561 she went home to Scotland, though she was a keen Roman Catholic and most Scots hated her religion. She told them that if they would let her follow her faith, she was quite willing that they should follow theirs. Before long, however, Mary found that it was hopeless for her to get much power over her Protestant subjects. She therefore turned her eyes to England, where the Romanists were stronger. If the Catholics could prevail in England, they would probably depose Elizabeth and make Mary queen. In any case, if Elizabeth died, Mary was the next heir of Henry VII., being his great-granddaughter through Margaret, wife of James IV.

10. For the first few years that she lived in Scotland Mary acted very prudently. But after that she fell into serious trouble. She had married as ^{Deposition of} her second husband her cousin, *Henry*

Lord Darnley, a foolish and jealous young man, but soon got to hate him very bitterly. She fell under the influence of a fierce Border chieftain named the *Earl of Bothwell*. Before long Scotland was horrified to learn that the house in which Darnley had been sleeping had been blown up with gunpowder,

and that Darnley's dead body had been found in the garden. It was believed everywhere that Bothwell had murdered Darnley, and that Mary well knew what he was doing. Soon afterwards Mary married Bothwell, and so suspicion was converted into certainty. The Scots were so disgusted that they de-throned her and set up as king her son, *James VI.*, a baby only a few months old. Mary was imprisoned in *Lochleven Castle*, a lonely fortress situated on a little island in the midst of a lake called *Lochleven*, in *Kinross-shire*. But in 1568 she managed to escape, and soon rallied her friends round her. However, she was beaten in battle, and was forced to flee to *England*.

11. Elizabeth was puzzled what to do with Mary. She could not restore her to her throne, because she neither wanted to make her powerful nor to offend the Protestant nobles who governed Scotland in the name of the little *James vi.* She therefore resolved to keep Mary in *England* in an honourable imprisonment. But Mary was dangerous to Elizabeth even in her prison. In 1569, the year after her arrival, the Roman Catholic lords in the North of *England* rose in revolt against Elizabeth, and strove to put Mary on the throne. Elizabeth suppressed the rebellion with some difficulty.

12. In 1570 the Pope declared that as Elizabeth was a heretic she had no right to reign. The result of this action was that no one could be both a good friend of the Pope and a good subject of Elizabeth. Forbidden to obey Elizabeth as their queen, the more active of the English Roman Catholics began to weave plots against her and in favour of Mary. Philip of Spain, who was now becoming unfriendly to Elizabeth, gave them help. The danger to Elizabeth soon became very grave. She had treated the Roman Catholics so badly

Catholic
conspiracies
against
Elizabeth.

that we cannot be much surprised that some of them should do all that they could to drive her from the throne. Indeed, we should rather wonder that all the Catholics did not join these conspiracies. But many of them never forgot that they were Englishmen as well as Catholics, and despite all the Pope could say, remained loyal to Elizabeth. But it was an age of the fiercest religious bigotry. Some Catholics, who in other ways were quite good men, thought it was their religious duty to join in rebellions, and even in conspiracies to murder the queen. Nor were they alone in this. In other countries, as, for example, France, there were Protestant fanatics as willing to murder Catholics as some of the Catholic zealots in England were eager to slay Elizabeth.

13. The Romanists in England were not the only danger. Most of the great sovereigns of Europe were Roman Catholics, and they were always looking out for a chance to help their English brethren in the faith. But the greatest new trouble to the queen came from a swarm of missionary priests, mostly Englishmen, who, being educated abroad in the Catholic faith, came back to England to quicken the zeal of the old Catholics, and to make what converts they could among the Protestants. These were men of great earnestness and devotion, who carried their lives in their hands. Some of them were called the *seminary priests*, because they were brought up in *seminaries*, or theological colleges, set up for the education of the Roman clergy on the Continent. A few of the cleverest were called *Jesuits*, because they were the members of a new order of priests called the Jesuit Order, recently established to win back heretics to the Catholic faith.

14. Elizabeth was afraid of these zealots. Parliament passed cruel laws which made it easy to put

them to death as traitors, and before long many devoted missionaries were sent to the scaffold:

Before Elizabeth died nearly as many Roman Catholic priests were hanged as traitors as there had been Protestants burnt as heretics

Elizabeth persecutes the Roman Catholics.

in the days of Mary. Some of those who suffered were high-souled enthusiasts, who were quite as much martyrs for their religion as any of Mary's victims. But others were political intriguers, who fomented every plot against the queen, and it is only fair to remember this when we blame Elizabeth as a religious persecutor. In truth, it was a life-and-death struggle between the old and the new faiths, and the champions of both sides were very unscrupulous as to the weapons they used to defeat their foes.

15. Plot after plot was formed to release Mary of Scotland and to slay Elizabeth. Fortunately they were all discovered, but they created the greatest alarm among English Protestants. At last a conspiracy was detected, of which the chief actor was a foolish youth named *Anthony Babington*. It was not hard to find out Babington's plans, since he was always boasting of the great things he was going to do. He was soon arrested and put to death. But letters were found written by Mary, in which she warmly approved of Babington's design to murder the queen. This gave Elizabeth her chance. Mary was taken to *Fotheringhay Castle*, in Northamptonshire, and tried as an accomplice in an attempt to slay Elizabeth. Mary declared that as a crowned queen she could not be tried in any English court. But her plea was overruled, and she was condemned to death. For a long time Elizabeth was afraid to execute the sentence. But at last she signed the death-warrant, and early in 1587 Mary was beheaded in the great hall of Fotheringhay Castle. She died

The Babington conspiracy and the execution of Mary Queen of Scots.

with the courage and dignity that had never deserted her. With her death Elizabeth's worst dangers passed away. There was no longer any reason for making plots to slay her, for if they had succeeded, the next heir now was James of Scotland, who was a Protestant. The Catholics looked upon Mary as a martyr, forgetting her hardness and selfishness, and only remembering her sufferings and devotion to her faith.

16. During the years of Mary's imprisonment England and Spain were gradually drifting into war. But Philip ~~England and~~ was so afraid of the French joining the ~~Spain drift~~ English against him that he put up with into war. ~~almost any insults from the English rather than formally make war on them.~~ The result was a curious state of things. England and Spain remained at peace so far as the name went. Yet each tried hard to do the other as much harm as it could. Spain aided the conspirators against Elizabeth. The queen answered by helping the rebels against Philip. And she had a very good chance of doing this, since in 1572 Holland and the other northern states of the Netherlands rose in revolt against Philip, their ruler. For a long time Philip had sought to stamp out Protestantism among the Dutch, but they were so stubborn and strenuous that he could never succeed. At last they threw off his yoke, set up a Protestant Dutch Republic, and called on all Protestant Europe to help them to secure their freedom. The head of the Dutch was *William, Prince of Orange*, great-grandfather of the William of Orange who, more than a hundred years after this, became our King William III. At last he was murdered by a Catholic enthusiast, and it looked as if the Dutch would be beaten after all.

17. In 1586 Elizabeth sent soldiers to help the Dutch. At their head she put *Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester*, the son of the Duke of Northumberland, whom Mary

Tudor had put to death. He was a great favourite of Elizabeth, who would probably have married him if she had not resolved to keep single. But he was not wise or prudent enough for such a hard post as the command of the army in the Netherlands. However, he did something to assist the Dutch. In one of the battles which he fought, his nephew, *Sir Philip Sidney*, was slain. Sidney, though still quite a young man, was looked upon as the pattern of a chivalrous English gentleman. He had written beautiful sonnets and romances, had fought bravely, and had made himself much loved by troops of friends. It is said that when he lay wounded on the field some one brought him a drink of water. But Sidney saw a private soldier lying near who was suffering more than himself. He bade the water be given to the soldier, saying to him, 'Thy necessity is greater than mine.'

18. The English and Spanish were also fighting a great deal at sea. When Henry VII. had been King of England, *Christopher Columbus* had discovered *America*, and the Spaniards, in whose pay Columbus had been, conquered a great deal of this new world for themselves. Up to this time the English took very little concern about the sea or about trade. They were an easy-going, stay-at-home people, fond of plentiful living and hard fighting, but quite indifferent to adventure and discovery, and so careless of making money that up to Tudor times nearly all the foreign trade of the country had been in the hands of Netherlanders, Germans, and Italians. But the Reformation had already begun to stir up the sluggish English. Even under Henry VIII., who, we must remember, did a great deal for the English navy, there was a new spirit of adventure and enterprise abroad. Under Elizabeth the new spirit grew. English sailors

Leicester and
Philip Sidney
in the
Netherlands.

The struggle
between
England
and Spain
on the
ocean.

now began to appear in distant seas, eager for adventure, profit, and renown. They found an admirable opportunity of winning all these things in the vast and badly ruled Spanish possessions in America. Philip forbade all but Spaniards trading with Spanish colonies. But English ships now came with cheaper and better goods than the Spaniards had to sell, and, despite the law, the colonists willingly bought of the English the commodities which they lacked.

19. The chief want of the Spanish colonists was that of labourers to till the soil and work the mines. A shrewd, hard-hearted but brave English captain, *Sir John Hawkins*, kidnapped negroes in Africa, and sold them at high prices to the Spanish planters. This was the beginning of the *slave-trade* between Africa and America, and of negro slavery in America. In those days, however, neither English nor Spaniards paid any thought to the sufferings of the wretched blacks. It was looked upon as a very profitable and useful trade, and Hawkins soon made a fortune by it. Philip became very angry with the English for breaking his laws against foreigners trading with his American subjects. But the Englishmen would not be put down, and began to fight for what they thought were their rights. Before long they found that an easy way of getting rich was by robbing the Spanish towns in America, or by stopping the great Spanish trading ships and seizing the cargoes of gold and silver which they were carrying over the Atlantic to Spain. Many of the English sailors were zealous Protestants, and believed that they were doing God's work in robbing and slaying the Papist Spaniards. The Spaniards retaliated when they could. If they managed to capture an English ship, they kept the sailors prisoners, and sometimes tortured or burnt them as heretics.

20. The most famous of the English mariners was *Francis Drake*, a Devonshire man, as so many of



Sir Francis Drake, in his forty-third Year.

(From the Engraving by Elstracke.)

these adventurers were, and a kinsman of Hawkins. On one of his voyages he reached the Isthmus of

Panama, and climbing up a lofty hill, looked down on the Pacific Ocean, whose waters no Englishman had previously so much as seen. He resolved that he would some day sail a ship on that strange sea, and some years later was able to redeem his vow. In 1577 he took sail from Plymouth with a fleet of five small ships. With these he sailed to South America. But tempests and misfortunes lessened the numbers of his squadron, and only his own vessel, the little *Pelican*, managed to penetrate the stormy Straits of Magellan and reach the open waters of the Pacific. There he plundered the Spaniards as much as he chose, and filled his ship with a precious cargo. At last he sailed westwards through the Pacific, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1580, after three years' absence, came back safe and sound to England. He was the first Englishman who ever sailed round the world. The Spaniards denounced Drake as a pirate. But Elizabeth visited him in his ship, and made him a knight.

21. Another famous Devonshire adventurer was *Sir Walter Raleigh*, who introduced the potato and tobacco from America to Europe, and strove to set up a colony in North America which he called *Virginia* in honour of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. But his colonists died or were slain by the Indians. It was not until after Elizabeth's death that an English colony was established in America.

22. Philip of Spain could not endure for ever the insults which the English were heaping upon him.

Drake at Cadiz. Soon after the death of Mary Queen of Scots, he went to war against England. He fitted out a vast fleet with which he hoped to conquer the islanders. But Drake was too quick for him. In 1587 Drake sailed right into *Cadiz* harbour, where the Spanish fleet was being prepared. He sank

or burnt a great many ships, and ruined the Spanish fleet for the time. He called this exploit singeing the King of Spain's beard.

23. In 1588 Philip got ready another fleet. It



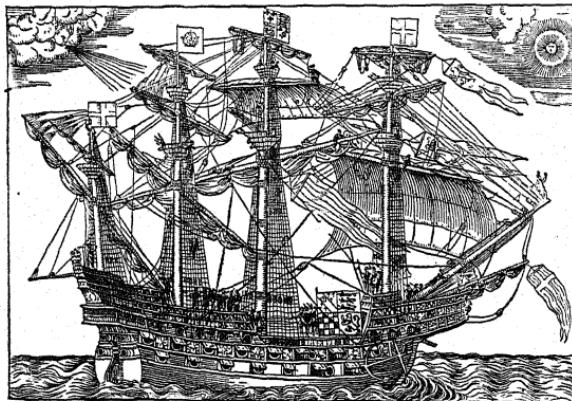
Sir Walter Raleigh.

(After the Picture by F. Zuccheri in the National Portrait Gallery.)

was so strong that some of the Spaniards thought that it was impossible to conquer it, and called it the *Invincible Armada*. But the ^{The Spanish} _{Armada.} English sailors had beaten the Spaniards so often that they were not afraid of them now. They knew that though the Spanish ships seemed very big, that they were slow sailors and unwieldy. The Spanish ships were, moreover, crammed with soldiers, who were to form an army to invade and

conquer England. The notion was to get to England as soon as possible and land the troops there. There were in those days no regular soldiers in England, while the Spanish army was the bravest and the most famous in the world. But every good Englishman now took up arms for the defence of his country. Catholics as well as Protestants joined the queen's army, and Elizabeth herself inspired the raw levies with something of her faith and courage. Knowing that they were stronger on sea than on land, the English wished to do most of the fighting on the water. But supposing that the Spaniards had managed to effect a landing, they were likely to meet a fierce and obstinate resistance.

24. The English navy was prepared, and many armed



The *Ark Royal*.

merchant-ships added to the scanty numbers of the royal marine. *Lord Howard of Effingham* in the The Armada was made commander-in-chief. His flagship in the Channel was called the *Ark Royal*. It was the biggest and finest ship of the royal navy in those days, and armed with many powerful cannon. By

comparing our picture of it with the print of the *Great Harry* (see p. 210), we shall see to what extent the art of ship-building had progressed in England since the days of Henry VIII. Lord Howard was shrewd and competent, though hardly a great sailor. Under him, however, were experienced sea-dogs like Drake and Hawkins, and the admiral was wise enough to follow their advice. It was not until the end of July 1588 that the Armada was sighted in the Channel. Lord Howard's fleet was at Plymouth. It let the Spaniards pass by, and then sailed out of port and hovered in their rear. The Spaniards sailed slowly up the Channel in the form of a huge half-moon. The English in looser order cut off their stragglers, attacked their rearguard, and when assailed in their turn, easily escaped from the enemy by reason of their superior seamanship. The result was that the Spaniards lost very heavily, and were glad to cast anchor off Calais and rest.

25. The English now set on fire some of their slowest and worst vessels, and a strong wind drove these blazing fire-ships among the closely packed Spaniards at anchor. Fearful of catching ^{Defeat of the} ~~Armada.~~ fire, the Spanish fleet cut their cables and again took to the sea. A little later they were forced to fight a pitched battle with the English fleet. In this they were so badly beaten that they could not even retreat the way they had come. In despair they sailed northwards, hoping to reach home by doubling the north of Scotland and then turning south. But tempests now completed the work of the English sailors. The west coasts of Scotland and Ireland were strewn with Spanish wrecks, and but few ships got home safely. In commemoration of her victory Elizabeth caused a medal to be struck on which was written, 'God blew with His winds and they were scattered.'

26. The failure of the Armada made Elizabeth's throne quite secure. It saved English Protestantism, and made certain the success of the Dutch in their long struggle for liberty against Spain. It made England as famous as she had been in the days of Crecy and Agincourt. And this time she won glory in a better cause. But Philip was stubborn, and made many efforts to undo his defeat. There was war between England and Spain for fifteen years more. But as time went on the Spaniards found out the English fashion of fighting, and the later expeditions of Elizabeth were by no means so successful as her earlier ones. Finally, the war grew slack, and many believed that the time to make peace was come. But the friends of fighting carried the day, and there was no peace so long as the old queen lived.

27. One of the great events of the end of the reign of Elizabeth was the conquest of Ireland by the English. During the later Middle Ages, Ireland had been practically independent. There was an English Government at Dublin, but its power did not extend very far. The only district that recognised it was what was called the *Pale*. Most of Ireland was ruled by the chiefs of the native Irish clans, such as the *O'Neills* of Eastern and Central Ulster, and the *O'Donnells* of Donegal. The rest was governed by the descendants of the feudal lords who had conquered Ireland in the days of Henry II. The foremost of these Norman houses was that of *Fitzgerald*, whose heads were the Earls of *Kildare* and the Earls of *Desmond*. Next to this mighty family came the *Butlers*, whose head was Earl of *Ormond*, and whose lands lay between those of the two branches of the house of Fitzgerald. The Wars of the Roses reduced the English power to a very low ebb, and under Henry VII. every pretender

had found a welcome there. Henry VIII. began, as we saw, the increase of the English power. He gave up the title of Lord of Ireland, which earlier kings had borne, and called himself King of Ireland. Elizabeth now trod in her father's footsteps. She put down several Irish risings with great cruelty, and sent Englishmen to settle in Ireland so that they might help her Government in keeping the country



Ireland under the Tudors.

quiet. But there were great difficulties in her way. In particular, the Irish would not listen to the English preachers of Protestantism. In their hatred of England the Irish became more strenuous Roman Catholics than they had ever been before, and for a long time got much help from Philip of Spain. Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign there was another formidable

Irish rebellion. Clans like the O'Neills and the O'Donnells joined hands with their old enemies, such as the Fitzgeralds and the other Norman houses. Things were made worse by the incompetence of the English leader. This was the *Earl of Essex*, the chief favourite of Elizabeth's old age, and a vain and rash youth, who made such bad blunders that he had to be recalled. He lost the queen's favour and planned a mad conspiracy to win it back again. His plot failed, and in 1601 he was beheaded as a traitor. A stronger general, *Lord Mountjoy*, carried out the work that he had failed in. The Irish rebellion at last was put down about the same time that Elizabeth died. But the Irish hated the English, and were only kept obedient by main force,

28. England had beaten the Spaniards, conquered the Irish, and was the chief Protestant power in

Glories of the end of Elizabeth's reign. Europe. Her ships were swarming in every sea. Her trade was growing, and her prosperity was wonderful. She became so much

more wealthy that every class of the community was able to live more comfortable and luxurious lives. The nobles built for themselves gorgeous palaces, such as the magnificent house of William Cecil at Burghley, near Stamford, or Hatfield House, in Hertfordshire, figured on page 248, a mansion erected by his

Architecture. son, Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, a few years later, which is still the home of his

descendant, the Marquis of Salisbury, the first Prime Minister of Edward VII. The style chosen for these houses was not exactly the Gothic style, after which buildings had been fashioned ever since Henry III.'s time, but which began to die out after the Reformation. Much in them was still Gothic, but this was curiously combined with details suggested by the Italian classic buildings of the time. This mixed style is called *Elizabethan* or *Jacobean*, and there are few parts of

the land where we cannot see stately and magnificent country-houses built in this fashion. But the improvements were perhaps still greater in the dwellings and habits of the ordinary people of the middle classes. Before this time a chimney, a pillow, a glass window, had been the rare luxury of the rich;



William Cecil, Lord Burghley, K.G., 1520-1591.
(From a Painting in the Bodleian Library, Oxford.)

but now the poor man had a chimney to carry off the smoke, a pillow to rest his head upon, glass windows, and better food and raiment. There had always been a rude plenty. Even in the old days it had been noted that 'though the English have their houses built of sticks and dirt, they fare like kings.' But a more

Luxury and
Comfort.

elegant and refined way of living now set in. People used forks to eat their food with instead of carrying it to their mouths with their fingers. Carpets came in instead of the straw or rushes that had hitherto covered the floor of even great men's houses. Instead of travelling on horse-back, as everybody had done in earlier times, great lords and ladies had splendid coaches



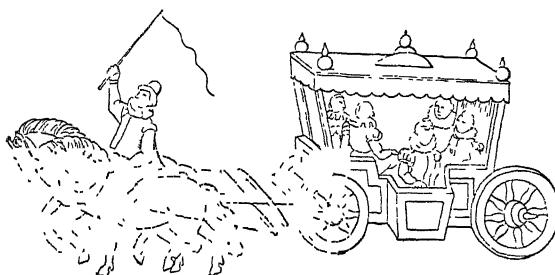
William Shakespeare.
(From the Droeshout Portrait.)

constructed for them, to enable them to get about with more comfort and less fatigue. But, as our picture shows us, the coaches of Elizabeth's days

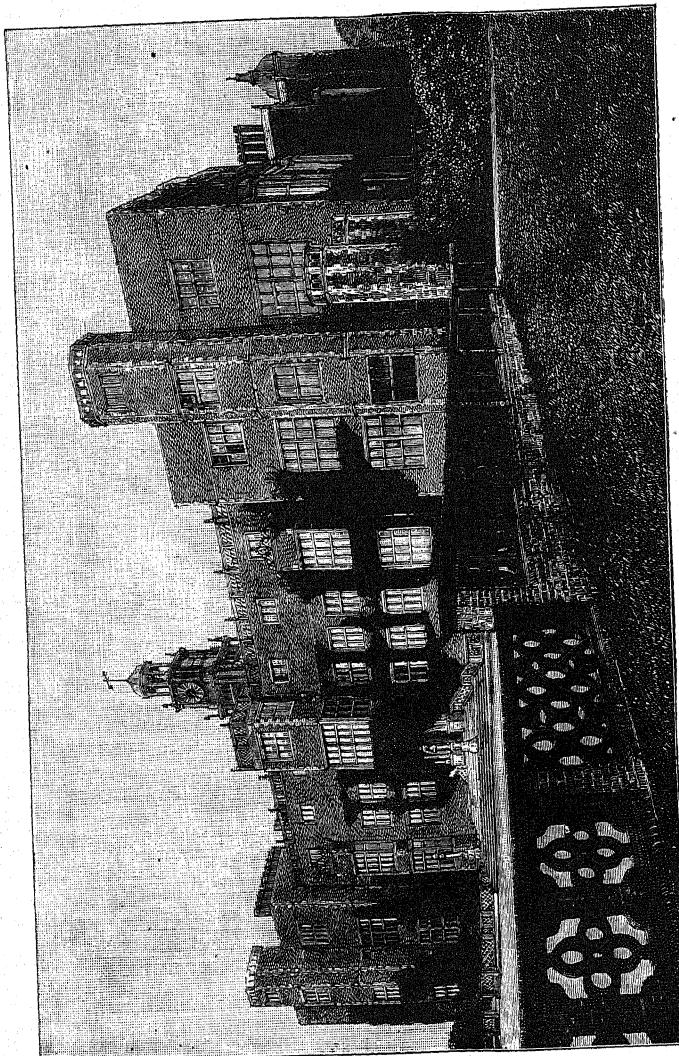
were very cumbrous and heavy, and we should probably not have regarded them as very comfortable, especially on the bad roads of those days.

29. It was not only in such ways as these that England became an easier and happier place to live in. Men were more active and enterprising than they had been. They were also more thoughtful, more interested in knowledge and learning. It was the time of a great literature. There were a large number of writers of wonderful plays, full of the energy, the restlessness, the power and genius of the age. It was the time of *William Shakespeare*, the greatest play-writer that ever lived; of *Edmund Spenser*, the eloquent poet of triumphant Protestantism; of *Richard Hooker*, the grave and wise defender of the English Church; and of *Francis Bacon*, the most judicious of essayists and the boldest of philosophers. All these things have made what have been called the 'spacious days of great Elizabeth' a period in our history of which every one of us should still be proud. And the splendour of the age was still at its highest when, in 1603, Elizabeth ended her long reign.

Elizabethan literature.



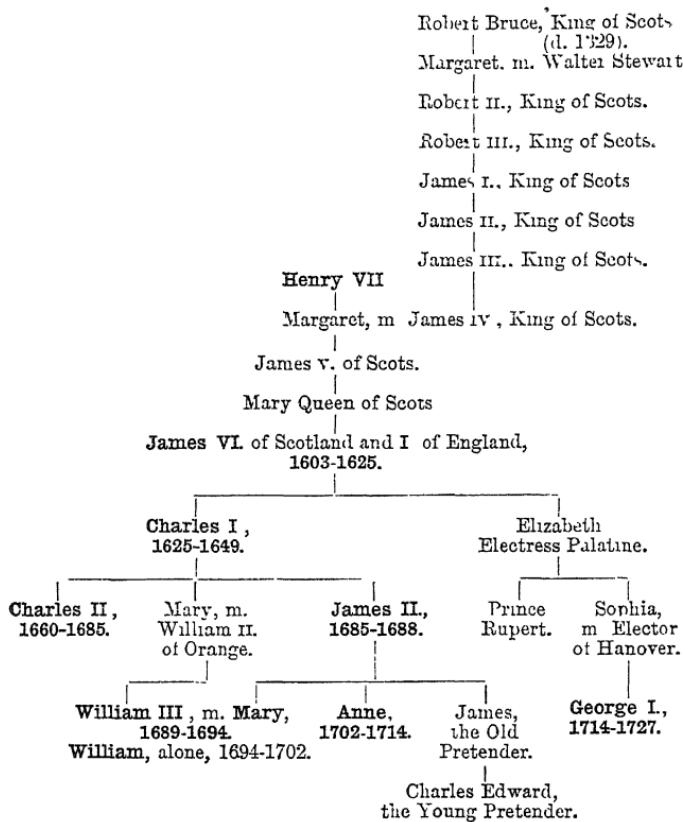
A Coach in the Reign of Elizabeth.



North-west View of Hatfield House, Herts.

(Built for Robert Cecil, first Earl of Salisbury, between 1605 and 1611.)

GENEALOGY OF THE STEWART KINGS IN SCOTLAND AND ENGLAND.



BOOK VI

THE HOUSE OF STEWART, 1603-1714

CHAPTER XXVI

James I., 1603-1625

(Married Anne of Denmark)

Principal Persons:

Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury; Robert Carr; George Villiers,
Duke of Buckingham; Lord Chancellor Bacon; Guy Fawkes;
Charles, Prince of Wales; Elizabeth, Electress Palatine; Sir
Walter Raleigh.

Principal Dates:

1603. Accession of James I.
1605. Gunpowder Plot.
1607. Foundation of Virginia.
1614. The Addled Parliament.
1618. Beginning of the Thirty Years' War. Execution of Raleigh.
1621. Fall of Bacon.
1623. Charles's voyage to Madrid.
1625. Death of James I.

1. James Stewart, the son of Mary Queen of Scots, and the great-great-grandson of Henry VII., began the James I. as line of Stewart kings in England. The King of Great Britain and Ireland. change from one house of kings to another is not a great thing in itself. But it was soon clear that things had altered very much when James I. succeeded Elizabeth. It was for one thing very important that England and Scotland were now ruled by the same king. James had been



King James I.

(From a Painting by P. van Somer, dated 1621, in the National Portrait Gallery.)

James VI. of Scotland from the time he was a few months old. After he had been proclaimed King of England, he took upon himself the title of King of Great Britain. This was but a first step towards further projects. Not content with the union of the crowns, James also wanted to unite the laws, Church, and Parliament of the two countries. But neither the English nor the Scots liked this, and it took a hundred years before a complete union was brought about. And at the moment of James's accession the conquest of Ireland was completed. Thus James was no mere King of England, but king over all the three kingdoms. However, the union of the kingdoms was not as yet very thorough. The Irish in particular were bitterly hostile to the English. Hoping to make Ireland more like England, James established in Ulster, hitherto the wildest and most independent part of Ireland, colonies of English and Scottish Protestants. This was the famous *Plantation of Ulster*, which resulted in the setting up of a Protestant and English district, which still endures in the north-east of Ireland.

2. New Englands began to spring up beyond the ocean. Attempts at colonies under Elizabeth had failed. But while James was on the throne several English colonies were set up in the east of North America. The first of these was *Virginia*. This land had already been given its name by Raleigh. It was in 1607 permanently settled by the English. Even earlier than this a few Englishmen occupied the little island of *Barbados* in the West Indies. Both Virginia and Barbados had warm climates, and their chief crops were tobacco in Virginia and sugar in Barbados. Finding it hard to get white men to work in the sugar or tobacco fields, the planters gradually fell back on negro slaves.

3. Other colonies were established more in the north.

The begin-
nings of
English
colonies in
America.

The first of these was the little colony of *New Plymouth*, set up in 1620 by a band of Puritan *separatists*, who found that James would give them no more freedom of worship than Elizabeth. The founders of this colony were called the *Pilgrim Fathers*, and the ship in which they sailed to their new homes was named the *Mayflower*. Before long these Puritan settlers had English neighbours, the most important of the new provinces being that of *Massachusetts*, of which Boston was the capital. These northern colonies were all called *New England*. They differed very much from the southern colonies like *Virginia*. The settlers were Puritan in religion, being for the most part *Independents*. They lived by farming their own little farms, by fishing, or by trading. They were more energetic, robust, and determined than the southerners. While in *Virginia* great planters ruled over many slaves, in *New England* there was more equality and more liberty. *England* was so far off in those days that James could not prevent the colonies doing what they wished. After his death fresh colonies were gradually established, so that during the *Stewart* period nearly all the east coast of *North America* was planted with English settlers. There is no event so important in this period as was this first beginning of the *Greater Britain* which has since been extended over nearly every region of the earth. It is due to the bravery and hardihood of these first colonists that the British tongue and race are nowadays scattered all over the world, and not shut up, as was the case even in Elizabeth's time, in a few little islands in north-western *Europe*.

4. During these same years English trade grew apace, side by side with English colonisation. In 1600 Elizabeth had issued a charter establishing the *East India Company*. The shrewd and daring English merchants soon began to carry on

The Puritan colonies in New England.

The East India Company.

a great trade with India and the Far East. The impetus given by the great age of Elizabeth was gradually building up the modern England of commerce, colonies, empire, and adventure.

5. England also saw great changes during the reign of James I. The Tudor kings had been almost despotic rulers. Yet they had been popular, since England was well content to do what its kings told it to do. But since the great awakening under Elizabeth, Englishmen began to think and act for themselves. They felt that they ought to have something to say as to how the country was to be governed, and they grew suspicious of their kings. The result was that there began a struggle between the Stewart kings and their Parliaments. This contest of king and Parliament was the greatest feature of the Stewart period. It went on from reign to reign. Sometimes king, sometimes Parliament, seemed to have conquered. One king, James's son, Charles I., lost his life, and a Republic was for a time set up. But before long Charles's son, Charles II., was welcomed back as king. Yet the struggle of king and people still continued, and it was not until Charles II.'s brother, James II., had been driven from the throne that the great contest was ended. And then it ceased because Parliament had beaten the king, and henceforth made itself the strongest thing in the English state.

6. This struggle was hastened by the want of wisdom of the Stewart kings. James I. began badly enough.

Character and policy of James I. He was a foreigner who never quite understood English habits. He was indeed clever, well read, and learned, a great writer of books, and the sayer of many shrewd sayings. But he was very fixed in all his ways, obstinate, conceited, lazy, and hesitating. He was fond of living in retire-

ment, and played a poor part when he came before his subjects, being shy, awkward, and undignified. He admired Queen Elizabeth very much, and wanted to go on with her policy. But while Elizabeth always cared for her people, and strove to give them what was good for them, James thought mostly about himself, and always seemed to imagine that if a thing were good for his subjects it would be bad for himself. Englishmen could care little for such a king.

7. The Puritans and Roman Catholics had both expected that James would treat them better than Elizabeth had done, and were disappointed to find that he was as hard to them as ^{James I. and the} Puritans. the queen. Thus it was that some of the fiercest Puritans fled over sea to America. But the mass of the Puritans did not want so much as the Pilgrim Fathers. They did not wish to have separate churches and services of their own. But they did desire to alter the fashion of the English Church, and were very angry when James showed as much love of bishops and surplices as Elizabeth had done. They were numerous in the country and strong in Parliament. Parliament grumbled all the more since it disagreed with James's religious policy as well as with his way of ruling the state.

8. The Roman Catholics were still worse off. Despairing of making their position better by fair means, a few hot-headed Catholics formed a plot to blow up king, Lords, and Commons. On 5th November 1605 the Commons were to go to the House of Lords to see the king open Parliament. The conspirators hired some cellars under the House of Lords, and piled up gunpowder in them in order to destroy king and Parliament. This was called the *Gunpowder Plot*. The most famous conspirator was *Guy Fawkes*, a daring soldier, who was chosen to fire the

^{James and the}
^{Catholics.}
^{The}
^{Gunpowder}
^{Plot.}

powder. But before the 5th November came the plot was discovered. Fawkes was taken prisoner in his cellar. Other conspirators tried to raise a revolt. No one, however, would join them, and they were soon taken and executed. The mass of the Roman Catholics were innocent of any share in the plot, but they suffered severely from the rash act. The cruel laws against them were rigidly enforced, until men's memory of the crime became dulled.

9. James was very good-natured, and was always giving his friends money, estates, and titles. This weakness made him all the more dependent ^{James I. and his} on Parliament. But he never quite saw ^{Parliaments.} this, and while asking Parliaments constantly for money, he was always lecturing them on the wonderful dignity which belonged to a king, or telling them that, if he chose, he might put an end to the power of Parliament altogether. The result was a long series of petty disputes. One of James's Parliaments, that of 1614, only sat for a few weeks, and was then ended, or *dissolved*, by the king because it was so obstinately opposed to him. It did not so much as pass a single law. For this reason it was called the *Addled Parliament*. After this failure James did without a Parliament for over seven years.

10. James's chief minister was *Robert Cecil*, Earl of Salisbury, the son of the great Lord Burghley, and the ancestor of the Lord Salisbury who became the first Prime Minister of Edward VII. ^{James's favourites and ministers.} But James never trusted his ministers as Elizabeth had done. He preferred to follow the advice of favourites, amusing and good-looking young men, who would do exactly as he told them, and never want to have their own way. The first of these favourites was a Scotchman named *Robert Carr*. But Carr fell into disgrace for having joined with his wife in plotting a cruel murder, and James would have no

more to say to him. His place was taken by *George Villiers*, a handsome, proud, and energetic young man, who soon quite won over the king's heart. Villiers received great estates, and became Duke of Buckingham. He was the more powerful since he was as friendly with *Charles*, the Prince of Wales, as he was with



The First Duke of Buckingham.
(From a Painting by G. Honthorst in the National Portrait Gallery.)

the old king. Buckingham and Charles were much the same age, and had the same tastes and pursuits. James used to call Buckingham 'Steenie,' and his son 'Baby Charles.' Though Buckingham was not a bad man, his sudden rise rather turned his head. He became proud and overbearing, and was very generally hated.

11. While Buckingham was all-powerful, James seldom listened to the advice of his wise Lord Chancellor, *Bacon*. *Bacon* was a great writer and a famous philosopher. He was also a good lawyer and a far-sighted statesman. But he was too eager to get on and to make money. In 1621 a new Parliament, which was disgusted with



Sir Francis Bacon, Kt.

(From an Engraving by Simon Pass, in the Print Room of the British Museum.)

James, attacked the Lord Chancellor for receiving presents from those whose suits he was going to hear. After the fashion of Edward III.'s days, the Commons impeached or accused Bacon before the Lords. He confessed his guilt, was convicted, and driven from office.

12. James I. was fond of peace. As soon as he became king he ended the long war with Spain. He was a Protestant and the Spaniards were Catholics, but he

thought that his foreign policy ought not to be influenced by religion. He therefore desired to be on good terms with the Spaniards, though most of his Protestant subjects hated Spain, and could not understand why James should wish her friendship. But at last James proposed that his son Charles should be married to the daughter of the Spanish king. She was called the *Infanta*, a title given by the Spaniards to the daughters of their kings. Protestants in England were horrified at the prospect of their future king being married to a Roman Catholic. But there were so many difficulties in arranging the match that years passed away, and the negotiations were not brought to an end.

13. Early in James's reign Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the most famous of the Elizabethan heroes, had become mixed up with a conspiracy, and had been condemned to death. But James had contented himself with shutting him up in the Tower. For years the bold soldier languished in imprisonment. Eager to be free, he made a proposal to James which led to his release. This was that he should be allowed to lead an expedition up the river *Orinoco*, in South America, where he said that there were rich gold-mines, from which he could refill James's empty purse. The king was delighted at this easy way of getting rich, and let Raleigh go, telling him, however, that he must on no account attack the Spaniards, or occupy lands belonging to the Spanish king. Unluckily, all that part of America was claimed by Spain, and Raleigh soon got into conflict with the Spaniards, who stopped him from going up the Orinoco. After this he was forced to return to England. He brought no gold, but he brought the prospect of a quarrel with Spain. James, however, was resolved not to break with the

Raleigh's
last voyage
and
execution.

Spanish king. In 1618 he ordered Raleigh to be put to death under the sentence passed fifteen years before. To most Englishmen James seemed to be a mean coward in thus abandoning Raleigh to the Spanish fury.

14. James soon had other troubles to face. His daughter Elizabeth was married to a German Protestant prince called the *Elector Palatine*. In 1618 a war broke out in Germany between The last years of James I. the Protestants and Catholics, called the *Thirty Years' War*, because it lasted all that time. Before long the Catholics drove Elizabeth and her husband from their dominions, and James was very anxious to have them restored. But he foolishly thought that the best way to get this done was by pressing on his Spanish alliance. However, the more eager James was the less eager were the Spaniards. After years of waiting Charles grew impatient, and started off to Spain with his friend Buckingham in order to woo the Infanta in person. But at Madrid he soon found out that the Spaniards were fooling himself and his father, and that there was no chance of his getting a Spanish wife unless he gave the Catholics in England more liberty than any one was willing they should have. In a great rage Charles went home to England, and soon afterwards forced his father to go to war with the treacherous Spaniards. Before much was done, however, James I. died, in 1625.

CHAPTER XXVII

Charles I., 1625-1649

(Married Henrietta Maria of France)

Principal Persons :

The Duke of Buckingham; Sir John Eliot; Archbishop Laud; John Hampden; John Pym; Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford; Lord Falkland; Edward Hyde; the Earl of Essex; Prince Rupert; Oliver Cromwell; Sir Thomas Fairfax.

Principal Dates :

- 1625. Accession of Charles I.
- 1628. Petition of Right.
- 1629-1640. Charles rules without a Parliament.
- 1637. The Ship-Money Judgment, and the Scottish Prayer Book.
- 1640. The Long Parliament meets.
- 1641. Irish Rebellion.
- 1642. The Civil War begins. Battle of Edgehill.
- 1643. Battle of Newbury.
- 1644. Battle of Marston Moor.
- 1645. Battles of Naseby and Philiphaugh.
- 1646. Charles surrenders.
- 1648. Second Civil War.
- 1649. Execution of Charles I.

1. The Prince of Wales now became Charles I. He was dignified, good-looking, grave, temperate, and religious. But he was neither clever nor clear-headed, and he was unable to understand any standpoint but his own. He had much faith in himself, but little in his people. He was not straightforward, and though obstinate, had great difficulty in making up his mind.

Charles I.
quarrels
with Spain
and with his
Parliaments.

His friendship for Buckingham prevented him from being trusted by his subjects. Moreover, he expected that Parliament, which had always shown great enmity to Spain, would give him plenty of money to fight her. But Charles's first two Parliaments hated Buckingham, and refused to grant Charles any taxes as long as he trusted to Buckingham's advice. Charles



King Charles I.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck.)

would not give up his friend, and felt indignant that Parliament would not help him to carry on a war which it approved. He soon dissolved both Parliaments. It looked as if he was going to fight his

Parliament as well as the Spaniards. But it was foolish for a king who had so little to attempt to do so much.

2. Early in his reign Charles married *Henrietta Maria*, sister of Louis XIII., King of France. The marriage ensured him French support against the Spaniards, but it was not a popular one since the queen was a Roman Catholic. But Charles so mismanaged things that



Queen Henrietta Maria, Wife of Charles I.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck.)

before long he quarrelled with his brother-in-law, the French king, as well as with the King of Spain. He now had war with both France and Spain on his hands, and utterly failed in both.

3. Charles could not pay his way, so that in 1628 he was forced to summon his third Parliament. Led by a Cornish gentleman named Sir John Eliot, the Commons drew up a document called the *Petition of Right*. In this they required that Charles should never raise taxes or forced loans without the consent of Parliament, never rule his subjects by *martial* or military law, and never put any one into prison without lawful reason. After some hesitation Charles accepted the Petition. Parliament then granted him a large sum of money.

4. Soon after this Buckingham was murdered. But the king's policy remained the same, so that people

The murder of Buckingham, and Charles's final quarrel with his third Parliament.

saw that the fault had always been with Charles rather than with the Duke. Parliament began to grumble afresh when they heard that, despite the Petition of Right, the king was still levying some duties called *tonnage and poundage*, for which he had never received a grant. They were still more angry with the sort of men to whom Charles gave bishoprics. Many of these belonged to a new party in the Church, called from their teacher, a Dutchman named Arminius, the *Arminian* party, which was very much opposed to the Puritans. When Parliament met again there was a stormy scene. Charles ordered the House of Commons to adjourn. But the Commons shut the door in the face of the king's messenger. The Speaker, afraid of the king's wrath, got up from his chair and was about to end the sitting; but two members held him down in his seat, and forced him to allow the House to continue. Eliot carried through a resolution declaring that all who paid tonnage and poundage, and all who favoured the king's Arminian way of thinking in religion, were enemies of the kingdom. Then the doors were opened and the king's messenger let in. Parliament was dis-

solved, and Eliot was thrown into the Tower, where he died of an illness brought about by the harshness of his imprisonment.

5. For eleven years Charles ruled without a Parliament. He at last made peace with France and Spain, so that he had no longer so much need of heavy taxes as in previous years. But he continued to levy tonnage and poundage, and he revived various old-fashioned rights of the crown, out of which he could make money. One of these was *ship-money*. Charles quite wisely wished to make the British navy strong enough to protect our shores from invasion. But instead of calling on Parliament to provide him with funds, he revived an ancient claim of the crown to require the different counties to build ships for the king, or to pay him money that he might get ships built. *John Hampden*, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, refused to pay this tax. But in 1637 the judges decided that the king had a right to levy it. Hampden's resistance to ship-money stirred up much opposition to Charles.

6. Charles's chief adviser in church matters was *William Laud*, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was a very learned, hard-working, and energetic man, who really wished to make things better in the Church. But he was narrow-minded and meddlesome, and was more opposed to the Puritans than any of the earlier archbishops. He was the leader of the Arminians, and thinking that the Puritans had no right to be inside the Church at all, he did his best to turn them out of it. He loved elaborate ritual and stately ceremonies. One thing he did was to alter the position of the communion table. In the days of Edward vi., stone altars had been broken up and movable tables of wood set up in the middle of the *chancels* or eastern parts of the churches. Laud ordered that these tables should be

Laud and the Puritans.

placed at the east end of the church, and should be fenced off by rails from the approach of the people. He managed to get this order carried out everywhere, and to this day you can see in any English church the holy table set up altarwise in accordance with Laud's wish. The Puritans thought that Laud was no good Protestant, but a Roman Catholic in disguise. This was not the case, for Laud was as much opposed to the



Archbishop Laud.

Pope as he was to the Puritans. He held the views of the modern High Churchmen, while the Puritans were more like Low Churchmen. Neither understood the other, and both wanted to make everybody follow what they themselves thought right.

7. For the moment Laud had the upper hand. He could compel the Puritans to obey him by means of the *High Commission Court* and the *Star Chamber*.

The High
Commis-
sioner and
the Star
Chamber.

The High Commission Court, first set up by Elizabeth, was an ecclesiastical court in which the king carried out that royal supremacy which he had inherited from the Tudors. The Star Chamber, first established as we

have seen by Henry VII., had done good work in Tudor times in putting down turbulent and disorderly nobles. It now inflicted very cruel punishments on all who opposed the king and the archbishop.

8. After Laud, Charles's chief adviser was *Sir Thomas Wentworth*, a Yorkshire gentleman, who had taken part in the attack on Buckingham, but had afterwards gone over to Charles and become Governor of Ireland. He was a hard, able man, who disliked half measures. He ruled Ireland wisely and firmly, but roughly, and put down all opposition with an iron hand. Laud and Wentworth were close friends, and called the system which they believed in 'Thorough.' They thought that Charles was weak in not carrying on things with such a high hand as they did.

9. Scotland gave Charles a great deal of trouble. James I. had brought back bishops to the Scotch Church, much to the disgust of the Presbyterians. Charles went further, and in 1637 ordered that the Scots should give up their own simple form of worship and use in their churches a Prayer Book, drawn up by Laud, and based upon the English *Prayer Book*. All Scotland rose up in rebellion. The Scottish clergy refused to read *Prayer Book*, and the National *Covenant*. They met together in the general council of the Church of Scotland which was called the *General Assembly*, and declared that they would have neither bishops nor Prayer Book in their Presbyterian Church. They also drew up in 1638 a document called the *National Covenant*, by which they pledged themselves to resist 'Popery, Prelacy, and all superstition.'

10. Charles was helpless against the Scots. He had no troops and no means of enforcing his will on a whole nation. He strove to stir up the old ill-feeling between the English and the Scots. On two occasions

he managed to raise an army. The two wars which The Scots successfully resist Charles. he strove to wage against the Scots were called the *Bishops' Wars*, because in them Charles strove to restore Episcopacy in Scotland. But he soon found that he had wasted his funds in collecting soldiers who would not fight. He was forced to make peace with the Scots and accept all that they had done. But he was not only beaten in Scotland. The Scots had shown the English how they might resist if they wished. And the cost of the campaigns had reduced Charles to beggary.

11. Charles recalled Wentworth from Ireland and made him Earl of Strafford and chief minister. But Strafford saw no way to get money except by calling Parliament together. This was done in the spring of 1640, but Parliament would give Charles nothing, unless he changed his way of ruling. Charles would not do this, and dissolved it. This Parliament sat so short a time that it was called the *Short Parliament*. But in November 1640 Charles was forced to assemble another Parliament. This body lasted in a way for nearly twenty years, and was therefore called the *Long Parliament*. These twenty years witnessed more changes than any other period of our history.

12. Before the meeting of the Long Parliament Charles had done what he pleased. He was now powerless. Led by Hampden, the hero of the ship-money struggle, and by John Pym, a wise and eloquent squire of Somerset, the Commons set to work to break down the whole system of Charles's government. They abolished the Star Chamber and the High Commission Courts. They declared that the decision of the judges in favour of ship-money was bad law. They impeached Strafford and Laud, the chief ministers of Charles's tyranny.

The Long Parliament destroys Charles I.'s system of government.

13. Laud's trial was put off, but Strafford was at once brought up before the Lords. Howeyer, it was soon found that it was very hard to prove him guilty of any legal offence. The Commons accused him of treason, but his crime was against the country, and the only treason known to the law was treason against the king, whom

Attainder of
Strafford.

Strafford had served but too well. Before long the Commons dropped the impeachment and drew up what was called a Bill of Attainder. This was simply a new law enacting that the person mentioned in it should be slain. Henry VIII. had found Acts of Attainder a convenient way of getting rid of his enemies. The Commons now fell back on one of the worst examples of the most violent of our kings. But they carried through their will. As a new law, the Bill had to pass through both the Lords and the Commons, and then to receive the royal assent. The two Houses willingly passed it, but Charles had promised Strafford that not a hair of his head should be touched. Yet when it came to the point he thought more of himself than of his minister. After some hesitation he gave his consent, and Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill. Four years afterwards the aged Laud suffered the same fate.

14. In 1641 a terrible rebellion broke out in Ireland. After Strafford's iron hand had been withdrawn, the native Irish rose against the Protestant settlers, and revenged themselves for long The Irish
Oppression by working all kinds of horrors.

The story of the doings of the Catholic rebels was told with much exaggeration in England, and was used by the Puritans to blacken the cause of the king, who was married to a Catholic wife, and was thought too friendly to Catholics.

15. Meanwhile fresh troubles were arising in England. The Long Parliament had been of one mind in destroy-

ing the royal despotism, but it began to break up into parties when the question arose how the Church was to be managed in the future. One party, headed by the thoughtful and pious *Lord Falkland*, and a lawyer named *Edward Hyde*, was content if the novelties brought in by Laud were abolished. But the majority of the Commons followed Pym and Hampden in approving of what was called the *Root and Branch Bill*. This was a scheme for abolishing bishops and the Prayer Book, and making the English Church Presbyterian like the Church of Scotland. It was carried through the House of Commons by a small majority.

16. Charles had now again a chance. If he could persuade the party of Hyde and Falkland that he had really given up his old policy, he might easily have won back power as the upholder of the Church as established by Elizabeth. Angry that Charles was again getting dangerous, Pym and Hampden asked the Commons to pass what they called the *Grand Remonstrance*, a long document in which all the old grievances against him were once more brought forward. Hyde and Falkland objected to raking up these matters afresh. After a hot debate the Grand Remonstrance was carried, but only by a majority of eleven. The once unanimous Commons were now nearly evenly divided.

17. Charles as usual proved his own worst enemy. He soon by his foolish acts proved up to the hilt the doctrine of Pym and Hampden that the king could never be trusted. He went down to the House of Commons, and, accusing Pym and Hampden and three of their friends of treason, strove to arrest them. But the five members had fled to the city, and the only result of what was called the *Arrest of the Five Members* was to increase the deep distrust felt for

the treacherous king. So hot was the feeling against him that Charles had to run away from London. For a long time efforts were made to bring about a reconciliation, but the Commons insisted that Charles, if he came back, should only be a nominal king, leaving all power in their hands. As many of those who had followed Hyde and Falkland, and all those who hated the Puritans, began to rally round the king, Charles thought he was still strong enough to refuse such bad terms. As king and Parliament could not agree, the only thing that remained was for the sword to decide which was the stronger.

18. The *Great Civil War*, or the Great Rebellion, began in the summer of 1642, and lasted for more than four years. It was not simply a fight between king and Parliament. Such a struggle would not have lasted so long or have been so nearly even. It was a contest between two nearly equal parties in the country, one of which was led by the king and the other by the majority of the House of Commons. But nearly half the Commons and more than half of the Lords were on the king's side, and neither the king's friends nor his enemies differed very much as to their ideas of how the country was to be ruled. Perhaps the clearest dividing line between the two parties was on the question of religion. All who loved bishops and the Prayer Book were for the king. All those thoroughgoing Puritans who wanted to reform the Church root and branch fought for the Parliament. The north and west of England and most of Wales were for the king. In London, the eastern and south-eastern counties, the majority was for the Parliament. The king's friends were called *Cavaliers*, that is, horsemen, or gentlemen; the Parliament's the *Roundheads*, because the Puritans cropped their hair short. But these were mere nicknames.

The Great Rebellion.

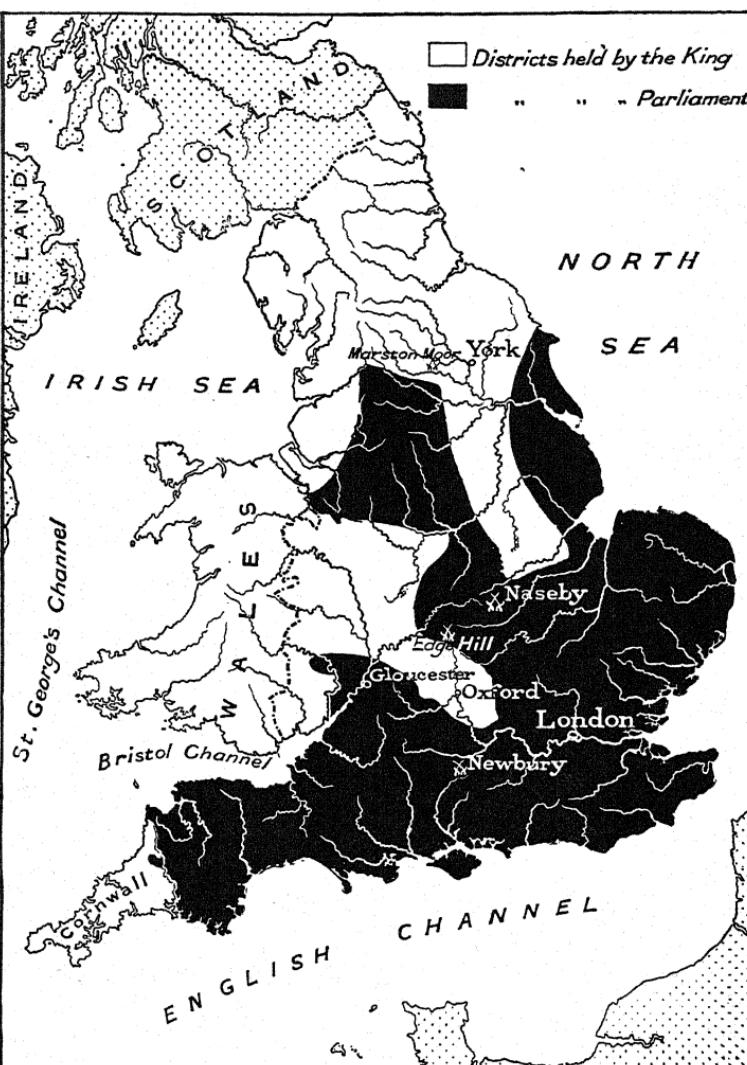
19. In the early part of the struggle the king did

better than the Parliament. Charles began the war in the Midlands and marched southwards towards London. The *Earl of Essex*, the Parliamentary general, tried to stop his way. This led to the first battle of the war at *Edgehill*, on the border of Oxfordshire and Warwickshire. Neither party ^{The Battle of Edgehill.} gained a decided victory. But Essex retreated during the night. This enabled Charles to march on to Oxford, which he made his capital. The king then pushed on towards London, but he was afraid to fight, and went back to Oxford.

20. In 1643 Charles's successes continued. His generals conquered the north and the west. Hampden was slain in a petty skirmish at *Chalgrove Field*, Gloucester, Newbury, and Marston Moor. about ten miles east of Oxford, while Pym died worn out with work and worry. But

Essex was able to prevent Gloucester falling into the king's hands, and secured his way back to London by fighting the battle of *Newbury*, in which Falkland perished. So even were both parties that there seemed no early hope of ending the struggle. Accordingly the Parliament made a treaty with the Scots called the *Solemn League and Covenant*, by which the Scots army was sent to their help in return for a promise to make the English Church Presbyterian.¹ In 1644 the Scots joined the Parliamentary army. Prince Rupert of the Rhine, the dashing son of Charles's sister Elizabeth, was sent by his uncle to stay their progress. The two armies fought the first decisive battle of the war at *Marston Moor*, near York. Rupert's cavalry nearly won the day, but a brilliant charge of the horsemen of the Puritan eastern counties under *Oliver Crom-*

¹ This Solemn League and Covenant of 1643, a treaty between the two nations, must be carefully distinguished from the purely Scottish National Covenant of 1638. But both documents aimed at the establishment of Presbyterianism, the earlier one in Scotland, and the later one in England as well.



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR
(MAY 1643).

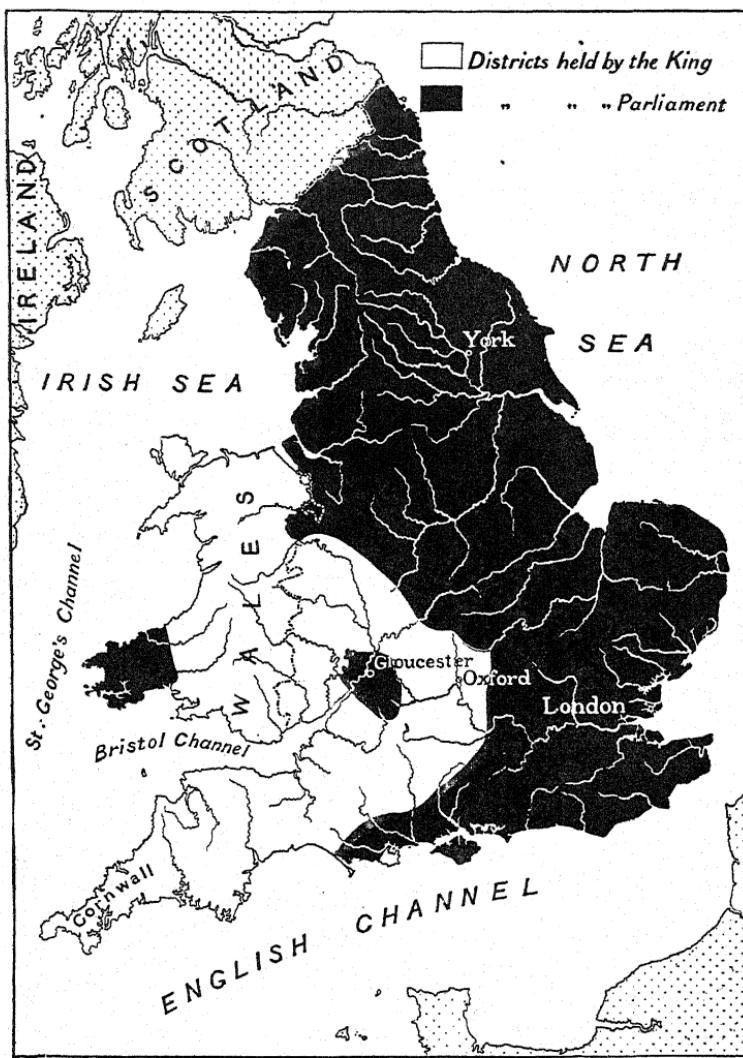
well changed the fortune of war, and the Royalists were absolutely defeated. Yet even after this Charles won victories in the south over the slow-minded Essex.

21. Moreover, a strong diversion in favour of the king was effected in Scotland by the gallant *Marquis of Montrose*. Finding that he could get few victories and to fight for Charles in the Lowlands, Montrose inspired the fierce and warlike clans

of the Highlands to take up arms for the monarchy. At the head of the Highlanders Montrose won a marvellous succession of victories. But in 1645 he ventured to invade southern Scotland, and was so badly defeated at *Philiphaugh* that he fled to the Continent.

22. Cromwell had shown himself the best soldier of the Parliament. A Huntingdonshire squire's son, he was descended from a Welsh nephew of Thomas Cromwell and the New Cromwell, Henry VIII.'s minister. He had

Model. sat in Parliament, and when war broke out he won over the eastern counties to the Puritan cause. He was a thoroughly practical man, and he despised generals like Essex because they did not know how to carry the war through successfully. He now persuaded Parliament to accept a scheme for reorganising the army called the *New Model*. By this the drill, pay, and discipline were very much improved, and the red coats, already worn by Cromwell's eastern counties' soldiers, were adopted as the uniform of the whole army. The red coats of our soldiers nowadays show that Cromwell's New Model was the starting-point of our modern English army. Moreover, Parliament passed the *Self-denying Ordinance* by which all members of Parliament, whether Lords or Commoners, were forced to resign their posts in the army. This got rid of Essex and the other half-hearted generals. In their stead *Sir Thomas Fairfax*, a Yorkshire gentleman became commander-in-chief. But Cromwell, though a member of Parliament, was thought so necessary



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR
(NOVEMBER 1644).

WALKER & COCKERELL, DEL.

that he was allowed to retain his position in the army, and was made general of the horse.

23. In 1645 the New Model defeated Charles at *Naseby*. This was practically the end of the war, though for a

The Battle of Naseby, and the defeat of the king. long time there were scattered garrisons that held out for the king. In 1646 Charles was so hard pressed that he was forced to

surrender. He chose to yield himself to the Scots rather than to the English since he thought that he could get better terms from them. But the Scots, finding that he would not set up



Soldier with Musket and Crutch, about 1630.

Presbyterianism in England, handed him over in disgust to the English and went home.

24. Even in his captivity Charles was still an important person. The Puritans had now broken up *Presbyterians* into two parties, called *Presbyterian* and *Independent*. The chief dispute was about *pendents* the form which the government of the Church was to take. The *Independents* disliked the

rigid and intolerant Presbyterian system of the Scots, and believed that there should be more religious liberty, and that every Christian congregation should settle its own affairs. Parliament was mainly Presbyterian, but the Independents were stronger in the army. The result was a fierce contest between Parliament and the army, and each party tried to win the king to its side. But Charles, though he negotiated with both, remained true to neither.

25. Before long the soldiers got the better of Parliament. Parliament had appealed to the sword, and it was but natural that the soldier should have the last word over the statesman. In 1648 the friends of Parliament now took up arms against the army which it had created. The struggle which ensued is sometimes called *The Second Civil War*. The Scots once more invaded England to help their Presbyterian friends, and there was a Presbyterian rising in Essex and Kent. But Cromwell's soldiers easily scattered their enemies, and marching back in triumph to London, drove away all the Lords and Commoners at Westminster who favoured the Presbyterian party. Charles had latterly leant to that side, and the fierce Independent soldiers now denounced him as a traitor and a man of blood, who had caused the renewed fighting. The remnant of the Parliament, called the *Rump*, at the order of the soldiers set up a *High Court of Justice* to try the king. Charles declared that this court had no right to try its king. Nevertheless it passed sentence of death upon him. On 30th January 1649 Charles was beheaded outside Whitehall Palace. He died so nobly and piously that his incurable faults were almost forgotten.

The triumph
of the In-
dependents,
and the
execution of
Charles I.

CHAPTER XXVIII

The Commonwealth and the Protectorate, 1649-1660

Principal Persons :

Oliver Cromwell; Fairfax; Barbon; Louis XIV., King of France;
Admiral Blake; Richard Cromwell; General Monk

Principal Dates :

- 1649. The Commonwealth proclaimed. Ireland conquered.
- 1650. Battle of Dunbar.
- 1651. Battle of Worcester.
- 1653. Cromwell made Protector.
- 1658. Death of Cromwell.
- 1660. Restoration of Charles II.

1. Putting aside the claims of the son of the dead monarch, Charles, Prince of Wales, the Rump of the Long Parliament resolved that henceforth England should be a *Commonwealth* or ^{Proclamation of a Common-wealth.} Republic, ruled without a king or House of Lords. This made the House of Commons the only governing body. But no general election was held. The Rump, which was less than a hundred strong, continued to act, though it in no sense represented the people. At first there was some excuse for this, since, though England was quiet, Ireland and Scotland were at war against the new English Government.

2. Since the rebellion of 1641 Ireland had been in a very disturbed state. As Charles's cause lost ground, his friends in Ireland made terms with the Roman Catholics, who were now the strongest party

in Ireland. The Puritans, however, hated Papists far more bitterly than Charles I. had done, and resolved to stamp out the Irish Catholics. In 1649 The Puritan Cromwell took an army over the St. George's ^{conquest of Ireland.} Channel. His strong, stern policy soon

proved successful. The first town that resisted him was *Drogheda*. On capturing it he brutally slew all its defenders. Before long the back of the Irish resistance was broken. The Puritan Commonwealth was set up in Ireland, and the Catholics were kept down with a firm hand. To strengthen the Protestant party many of Cromwell's soldiers were settled on the lands forfeited by Irish Royalists or Catholics. Many of the native Irish were driven beyond the Shannon into Connaught. Henceforth Ireland was at peace, and with peace came some sort of prosperity. But no prosperity would reconcile the Irish to Cromwell's rule, which seemed to them more cruel and bigoted than even the government of Strafford.

3. In Scotland, as in England, Presbyterians were now Royalists, and the Presbyterians still ruled Scotland. At their request the Prince of Wales came to rule Scotland as Charles II. But the ^{The Battles of Dunbar and Worcester.} Rump resolved to drive out Charles. Fairfax now gave up the chief command, and Cromwell took his place. In 1650 Cromwell invaded Scotland, and cleverly defeated the Presbyterian army at *Dunbar*. In 1651 Charles thought it best to invade England, where he hoped the Royalists would join him. But most Englishmen were weary of fighting, and had no mind to run the risks of a fresh civil war. The king got into the very heart of England, but he was joined by few new recruits. At *Worcester* Cromwell fell upon the Royalist army and scattered it with the utmost ease. He called this victory 'a crowning mercy.' It meant the end of fighting, for by the defeat of the Scots all the three kingdoms were

brought under the rule of the Rump. The King of Scots managed to reach France after all sorts of narrow escapes on the way.

4. These victories made Cromwell and his soldiers more powerful than ever. They now began to quarrel with the Rump, which they had set up a few years before. They said that the Rump ought to dissolve itself and let a real Parliament be elected. They complained that it had

The expul-
sion of the
Rump.



Oliver Cromwell.

(From the Painting by Samuel Cooper at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge.)

gone to war with the Dutch, who, as brother Protestants, ought to have been kept friendly with England. They denounced the Rump for greediness and jobbery. At last, in 1653, Cromwell went down

to the House of Commons, followed by a band of soldiers. He turned out the members, locked the door, and went home again. Nobody was sorry at the fate of the Rump. Still, with all its faults, it was all that was left of the Parliament of England. And now the army had destroyed the Commons, as well as the Monarchy and the Lords.

5. Cromwell could now do what he liked. But he was anxious that England should not be controlled by soldiers only, though he was not willing that she should choose freely how she was to be ruled. His first idea was that The country ought to be governed by 'the saints,' that is, by men of strong Puritan views. He therefore gathered together a number of earnest Puritans to discuss with him what was to be done. This assembly is often called *Barebones' Parliament*, from a fanatical Puritan named Barbon, who sat in it. But it was no real Parliament, since its members were not chosen by the people but by Cromwell. It was so crotchety and unpractical that Cromwell soon grew tired of it. Finally he persuaded it to separate.

6. Cromwell and the officers now settled for themselves how the country was to be ruled. Their scheme was contained in a paper called the *Instrument of Government*. By it Cromwell was made Lord Protector. This office made him chief ruler, so that he was very much like a king, though he had not the name of king. He was to be helped by a Parliament consisting of a House of Commons only. But earlier Parliaments had represented England and Wales alone. In Cromwell's Parliaments members also sat for Ireland and Scotland, so that for a short time there was only one Parliament for every part of our islands. But Cromwell's plans did not work well. His Parliaments quarrelled with him almost as much as the Parlia- Cromwell's rule as Protector.

ments of Charles I. had quarrelled with the king. Cromwell was a firmer ruler than Charles, and treated his Parliaments more roughly than the king had dared to do. However, he was very anxious to seem to be a constitutional ruler, and did not like to do without a Parliament. Yet in his next Parliament he allowed only his friends to sit. This friendly Parliament changed the system of government. Cromwell was made more like a king than ever. He was indeed offered the title of king, but he refused it because his soldiers hated the very name. At the same time a sort of House of Lords was set up, called the *Other House*, consisting of life peers. In fact the old Constitution was very nearly brought back, with Cromwell instead of Charles as king. But the people who wished for the old Constitution also desired to be ruled by Charles's son, and Cromwell's old friends were disgusted at their leader imitating so much of the ancient fashion. The result was that Cromwell nearly fell between two stools. But he was so active, bold, and clever that his plan of government outlasted his life, though most people disliked it.

7. Cromwell showed that he was as great a statesman as a general. He tried to settle the Church question by giving more toleration to Puritan different ways of thinking than any Church. earlier Government had permitted. This was a very wise step, since there had always been great differences of opinion on church matters since the Reformation, and it was only by the various bodies of Christians living peaceably side by side that a real settlement could ever be made. Cromwell allowed Puritans of every sort, Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists, to hold livings. He even permitted the Jews, who, since Edward I.'s time, had never been allowed to settle in England, to return to the country and to worship God after their own

fashion. But he would not suffer Churchmen to use the Prayer Book, or Roman Catholics to hear Mass. This was not very consistent, but he knew that the Church and the Catholic parties wished to bring back Charles Stewart. So he was afraid to tolerate them. Cromwell also had many schemes for making people better and more virtuous, but he found it impossible to force Englishmen to be good by magistrates and soldiers.

8. Cromwell's foreign policy was a great success. He joined Louis XIV., the young King of France, in his war against Spain, whose power had been rapidly declining since the days of Philip II. Before long the New Model army made itself as much feared on the Continent as it had been by the Cavaliers. With Cromwell's help France soon defeated Spain and became the chief nation in Europe. Through the Protector's wisdom England won back the great place she had held in the days of Elizabeth. Moreover, England now also distinguished herself on the sea. *Admiral Blake*, who, in the days of the Rump, had fought very bravely against the Dutch, now won brilliant victories over the Spaniards. Blake had fought against Charles I., but he cared more for England than for party. 'It is not for us sailors,' he said, 'to mind state affairs but to keep foreigners from fooling us.' He was one of the greatest English sailors who have ever lived. In Cromwell's days the island of *Jamaica* was taken from the Spaniards, and has ever since belonged to England.

9. All these things show that Cromwell was one of the best and wisest rulers England ever had. But with all his greatness we must never forget that he ruled by the sword and not with the consent of the people. He was more of a despot than Charles I., but he was always efficient and honest. Most Englishmen hated him

Cromwell's foreign policy.

Death of Cromwell.

and his ways, and would have gladly got rid of him. Yet they could not help admiring much that he did, especially as regards foreign affairs. But he early wore himself out, and in 1658 died.

10. *Richard Cromwell*, Oliver's eldest son, was proclaimed Lord Protector, son succeeding father just

Richard Cromwell's failure. as if they had been kings. He was an easy-going, weak man, who would not work hard. In a few months the army, which never loved him as it had loved his father, drove him from power, and Richard was quite content to go. But the army did not know what to do. Its different generals began quarrelling with each other. So helpless were they that they at last resolved to bring back the Rump of the Long Parliament to power. But the Rump was as narrow and foolish as ever, and was as little able as the army to govern wisely. Everything seemed drifting into a hopeless muddle.

11. Wise men began to see that the only way to set things straight was to bring back the old king and

The Re-storation of Charles II. the old Constitution. The first to realise this was *General Monk*, a silent, cautious man, the commander of the army that garrisoned Scotland. He marched with his troops from Scotland to London, and said no word as to what he was going to do. But he saw that every one was sick of the Rump and the army. He therefore declared for a *Free Parliament*, that is, for a Parliament chosen freely by the electors and not one in which only those were allowed to sit who agreed with the Government. His action was welcomed with extraordinary enthusiasm. In the spring of 1660 the freely chosen Parliament assembled. Its first step was to invite the son of Charles I. to come back to the throne of his ancestors. On 29th May 1660, his birthday, Charles II. entered London. This was called the *Restoration*.

Never was there such rejoicing in England. The rule of the prim saints and the stern soldiers was over. The Commonwealth had collapsed like the Protectorate. The king had come back to his own again. There was no great danger of the young king proving so tyrannical as his father, since the good laws of the early sessions of the Long Parliament were still in force. Moreover, the Restoration was not only the Restoration of the old Monarchy ; it also meant the bringing back of the old Parliament, and before long it meant the bringing back of the old Church.